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HISTORIA TECHNICA ANGLICANÆ:

A SYSTEMATIC ARRANGEMENT OF THE

LEADING EVENTS IN ENGLISH HISTORY.



THE GREAT BRITAIN



THE GREAT BRITAIN

LONDON,

JOHN BENNETT, 4 THREE TUN PASSAGE, IVY LANE, PATERNOSTER ROW

1834.

HISTORIA TECHNICA ANGLICANÆ

A

SYSTEMATIC ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

LEADING EVENTS IN ENGLISH HISTORY,

FROM THE

EARLIEST NOTICES OF THE COUNTRY TO THE PRESENT TIME:

WITH AN



ORIGINAL SYSTEM OF MNEMONICS.

BY THOMAS ROSE.

AUTHOR OF "ROMAN HISTORY FOR YOUTH;" "WESTMORLAND, CUMBERLAND
DURHAM, AND NORTHUMBERLAND ILLUSTRATED," ETC., ETC.

— toto divisos orbe Britannos.

LONDON:

JOHN BENNETT, 4, THREE-TUN PASSAGE, IVY-LANE,
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PREFACE.

THE publication of a new elementary History of England, will appear, at first view, a gratuitous undertaking: the existing treatises on this subject being already numerous; in the mode of compilation, varied and ingenious; and, in their claims to public favour, recommended by names to which no mean celebrity attaches. It is not, however, the erudition of an accomplished scholar, or the deep research of the penetrating historian, that so much contributes to the excellence of elementary history, as a practical knowledge of the wants of those for whose use initiatory treatises are compiled.

The author of the present volume, had, during an experience of ten years in scholastic business, an opportunity of justly appreciating the excellences of

the popular abridgments of English History, and also of perceiving their defects. The frequent references by the pupil, for explanation and assistance from his instructor, clearly indicated that some necessary facilities were wanting in these compilations; facilities, which the authors, in the plenitude of their own information, and the learned inexperience of their closets, never deemed it requisite to supply. It will be readily admitted, that if a pupil be left in a good measure to himself (as he probably must be in a large school), with no other assistance than an elementary work so defective in its construction, he will either contract a disgust for the subject which has not been rendered sufficiently clear and intelligible, or he will be liable to form erroneous views on the most important transactions recorded in the book.

Brevity is an essential requisite in elementary treatises: extensive detail and learned deductions weary the young, who seek rather an acquaintance with facts, than an insight into remote effects. Indeed, the inculcation of great leading truths, should precede the exercise of the judgment: they are the data from which maturer years can extract morals and infer

consequences. In few instances, perhaps, is it necessary to crowd history with philosophical reasonings; the human mind is gifted with an intuitive faculty of connecting causes and effects, of determining motives, and tracing distant issues.

Fulness is another necessary qualification in a treatise for the student. The whole of the subject should be brought, at once, within his view: it should not be vague and indefinite, either in its commencement or termination; but should be brought down in an easy and regular descent from its very beginning to the period when it must necessarily close. Few who have spent much time in the company of the young, can have failed to notice their anxious inquiries as to what preceded and what followed the events of any incomplete narration.

To accomplish the end which he had proposed to himself, the author of the present volume carefully selected the prominent events of English History, from various sources, and condensed them within as narrow a compass as perspicuity admitted. Some notices of the ancient Britons, not usually introduced into a juvenile compilation, have been deliberately

given; for though they may be in some measure conjectural, they are at least the opinions of men competent to judge. Maps on a peculiar construction, exemplifying the comparative geography of the country, form a necessary appendage to the work, and confer on it an exclusive and novel character. A simple and entirely original art of memory, has been contrived for determining on the instant, any important date connected with English History. A copious and minute index is appended to the work; and a series of questions, with references for their solution, are added, as exercises for the pupil, and to determine the extent of information he may have gained, from an attentive perusal of the book.

Having briefly glanced at the design and execution of his work, the author leaves it at the tribunal of public opinion; not entirely careless of the issue, but confidently relying on its adaptation for all purposes that a book of elements is expected to serve.

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Mr. Samuel Drew (late Editor of the Imperial Magazine) in a letter to the Author, July 19, 1827, gives the following testimony to the work : " Respecting your *Historia Technica Anglicana*, I beg to observe, that I think it will be found very serviceable. I shall be glad to see it before the world in a respectable dress."

GENERAL INTRODUCTION.

NATURE AND USES OF HISTORY.

HISTORY is a record of facts ; and it constitutes the most interesting and useful branch of human knowledge. To mark the alternate rise and fall of empires, and to trace the progress of a people through the intermediate stages between savage and civilized life, is a delightful occupation—for it exhibits all the charms of romance without offering violence to truth ; and it is an important research—because it imperceptibly discloses and explains a complicated system of cause and effect. The connexion of history is broken, when we isolate the records of any country and view them without reference to those of other nations : the decline of one kingdom is observed to issue in the foundation or advancement of another ; and the transactions of any state are for the most part governed by measures which have been adopted in neighbouring or distant courts. History, it would seem then, to be useful, should be *universal* : it should connect with present time the mighty annals of past ages—it should institute comparison between empires that have passed away, and thrones which are now existing—it should contrast the institutions and policy of contemporary states, and determine their dependences on each other. In the present treatise, an attempt has been made to incorporate with our national annals such references

to universal history as seemed necessary to render them perfectly intelligible to the reader ; and the author trusts that the plan he has pursued will offer both novel and important advantages to those who interest themselves only in what is immediately connected with English History.

The advantages of historical knowledge are so obvious that we need not insist upon them. An utter ignorance of the past would fetter the energies of mankind, and leave them without an impulse to exertion. It is with men as with children, they imitate what has been done, and labour to excel. The crude notions of a former age, when weighed and adjusted, not unfrequently issue in the completion of some beneficial invention, which, perhaps, had never been brought to light, if the attention of philosophers and men of science had not been called to it by the previous, though unsuccessful efforts of an ancestral race. Indeed, the ingenious labours of the most enlightened and civilized era, if strictly examined, will be found to be the mere working out and perfecting of those arts and inventions which had been darkly hinted at, or to a greater or less extent known in times past. "The proper study of mankind, is man," has become a trite observation ; but the forcible truth it contains is not so generally weighed and considered as it ought to be. Whether we reflect on the religious and civil institutions of our country ; our advancement in science, and progress in the arts of social life, or the increased comforts that crowd round our domestic hearth, we must refer them all, in a good measure, to the assistance and instruction derived from the records of departed times, and which, but for the historian, had never been transmitted to the present age.

ON THE STUDY OF HISTORY.

IF a knowledge of history is so useful and important, it is desirable to ascertain the means by which it may best be acquired. Much time is too frequently wasted in the acquisition, for want of considering what is the nature and extent of those historical data which it is necessary to treasure in the memory. Prolixity of description, and minuteness of detail, should be avoided as a pestilence; they tend only to obscure facts and bewilder the mind. The great leading events of history, stripped of all superfluous language, are the foundation on which a reflective and intelligent mind can most easily raise a sound and durable superstructure of historical knowledge. Let these grand features be indelibly impressed on the recollection, and the mind will imperceptibly acquire a readiness in determining the cause that led to any important national event, and of inferring the immediate and remote consequences to which it gave birth. It may be necessary, after the elements of history have been thoroughly acquired, to consult the finished and laborious writings of the historian, to prove the judgment and to correct it; but never ought they to be taken as a text book, from which to collect the fundamental principles of knowledge.

ELEMENTARY HISTORIES.

THE various elementary histories that have at different times appeared, though compiled by men of high talent, are all of them more or less objectionable. In some, the leading transactions are not exhibited with sufficient promineney; and in others they are too

thinly scattered; and the necessity for any mechanical arrangement, beyond the consecutive order of dates, does not seem to have occurred to the authors. The earlier periods in the history of a country (and in an elementary treatise these are the most important) have usually been passed over very slightly; while occurrences approaching nearer to our own times, and which are of no great weight as historical data, have as generally been minutely detailed. In defence of this mode of writing, it will be urged, that recent transactions in history, are those with which we are most intimately connected; and that events separated from us by the lapse of a thousand years, are things of less interest to us. All this will be readily admitted. But may we not, by daily intercourse with society, acquire a tolerable knowledge of the former, while an acquaintance with the latter is obtained only by study? The elements of any art or science are not details of ordinary practical rules and familiar operations, but a demonstration of first principles; and the elements of history, in like manner, are not the topics of the day, or a narrative of events of comparatively recent date, but a record of our country's infancy, and a development of its progress in ages far remote from the period in which we live.

THE RECOLLECTION OF DATES.

ONE great difficulty attending the study of history, is the necessity, yet apparent impossibility, of fixing dates on the memory with precision. A numeral expression is an isolated fact that cannot be recalled at pleasure, unless it be associated with something that brings it to remembrance. Yet, what is history

but a confused medley, if we have not the means of determining with tolerable accuracy the era of any remarkable transaction? A few dates, judiciously chosen, must, by some method, be well fixed in the mind; and these will serve as historical land-marks to which many other surrounding events may be referred.

MNEMONICS.

THE term Mnemonics is derived from the Greek *μνημονικός*, *remembering*; and is used to signify any mechanical assistance afforded to the memory. Much ingenuity has been shewn in the construction of artificial memories; but, generally speaking, every effort in this way, has tended rather to overburden and injure the retentive faculty, than to assist it. They are too complicated; and the connexion between the event and the era is exceedingly obscure. The tables, also, forming the basis of these systems, and from which a technical word is formed expressive of the required date, are so artfully constructed, that a more difficult puzzle could scarcely be devised, than to find the value in figures of any such word without an actual reference to the table itself.

THE SYSTEM OF ARTIFICIAL MEMORY ADOPTED IN THE PRESENT WORK.

THIS system is composed of technical verses, each of which fixes with precision the date of some remarkable transaction or event in English History. The *character* of the event is associated with the technical word expressing the era; and both flow together in a

smooth verse, which can scarcely ever be forgotten when once impressed on the recollection. If the method should be found to exceed in usefulness, most of those that have preceded it, the author candidly admits, that he borrowed his plan from the well-known and often repeated memorial—

“Thirty days hath September, &c.”

CONSTRUCTION OF THE TABLE

THE word *manuscript* contains ten letters, which answer to the ten digits; and by substituting one for the other, every date can be reduced to a word. The difficulty that will occasionally arise from the letters expressive of the date, being all or mostly consonants, is removed by blending with them one or more characters from the word *bevwolf*. When the letter *d* enters into any technical word, the period referred to is *after Christ*.

THE TABLE.

M	A	N	U	S	C	R	I	P	T
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0

Bevwolf.

D. Denoting after Christ.

EXAMPLES FOR ITS USE.

1. *To form a technical word from any given date.*

LET the given date be 55 B. C., the era of Cæsar's invasion of Britain. By reference to the table, we find that the letters corresponding to the figures are *S. S.*; but as these of themselves will form no

word, we take such letters from the word *beowolf* as will unite with them. Take *e* and *o*; these with S. S. form *esso*, a technical expression for the date given.

2. To find the value of any technical word.

Cast from it all letters not found in the word *manuscript*, and take the remainder in order as they stand. Suppose the technical term is *undo*: the only letters having a numeral signification are *u* and *n*; for *o* is an auxiliary character taken from *beowolf*; and *d*, merely denotes *after Christ*. *U* signifies 4, and *N* 3; the value of the technical is therefore 43, A. D.

MEMORIAL VERSES OF LEADING DATES IN ENGLISH HISTORY.

THE ROMANS.

Cæsar-ēssö triumphs o'er
The natives of the British shore.
Claudius-ūndö now doth come
To Britain, with the sons of Rome.
Boadicea-cōmd o'erturns
The Roman power, and London burns.
Agricolā-dīt doth command
The final conquest of the land.
Valentinian-ūdūll, Rome
Declining, calls her warriors home.

THE SAXONS.

The foolish Britons place their trust
In Hengist, Horra; *Saxons-dūst*.

THE KINGDOMS OF THE HEPTARCHY

Ūsrēd-Kēnt-dīdn, the Saxon's fast fix'd
Ūpēmōd-Sūssēx-Cūtōdē the next;

Sēmpēdō-Wēssēx-īārdō came on
Dēsērs-Eāst-Anglēš-rōpādē anon ;
Sūrdō-Nōrthūmbērlānd-dīvār they fix
Sīūdō-Mērcīā-īdān makes six ;
Sārōdē-Essēx-dīmōtē alone
 Then *dīārō-Egbert* unites them in one.

NOTE.—The technical word preceding the name of the kingdom, shews the period of its foundation ; and that which follows it, the time of its dissolution.

THE INTRODUCTION OF CHRISTIANITY.

The true faith-cōmdō, reached the shore ;
Augustine-spērōd after bore.

KINGS FROM EGBERT TO ALFRED

Ethelwulf-ēdīnīl succeeds to the throne,
Ethelbald-īsōrdē, each reigning alone ;
Ethelbert and Ethelred-īctōlēd stand
 Then *Alfred-īvrādē*, the joy of the land.

KINGS FROM ALFRED TO WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

Edward-pōtēmōd (when Alfred was gone)
 And *dōpās-Athelstan*, by turns fill'd the throne ;
 Next *Edmund-dōpūmō* the active and brave,
 And *Edred-dōlēpūc*, the church-ridden slave.
 After him *Edwy-pēssōd* the government bore,
 Then *Edgar pēspēdō* the diadem wore.
 When *Edward the Martyr-pērōsēd* passed by,
Pōrēdōp-Ethelred was seated on high.
Ironsides Edmund-mēlōmcōd did reign,

THE DANES.

And then came *Canute-mēlēmōrdō* the Dane,
Harold-mēlēndōs arose in his place;
Hardic'nute-mēlēnēpōd, the last of his race.

SAXON LINE RESTORED.

Next *Edward-mōtūmēd* the saint 'gan his reign;
 Then *Harold-mēlōccōd* who fell 'midst the slain.

THE NORMANS.

The conqueror flourished when Harold was slain,
William Rufus-mēlīrōd next had his reign;
Henry-mēmēlōd, when Rufus had yielded
 The sceptre of England, succeeded to yield it.

THE HOUSE OF BLOIS.

Stephen-mōmēndōs who seized on the crown,
 Was opposed by Matilda the heir to the throne.

THE LINE OF PLANTAGENET.

Plantagenet Henry-mēmōsōd appeared;
The first Richard-mēmēpōd in fight never feared.
 The infamous *John-ēmōmōppēd* then came,
 Then the third *Harry-māmōd*, a king but in name.
The first Edward-mārōd, renown'd on the plain;
The next Edward-mēntōrd was cruelly slain.
Edward the third-mēndr justly renown'd;
Richard the second-mōnrōd was dethron'd.

THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

*The fourth Henry-mēnēppōd the government claim'd ;
 The fifth Henry-mūmōnd at Agincourt fam'd ;
 Henry the sixth-mūlādābe bore sway,
 With whom the Lancastrian house pass'd away.*

THE HOUSE OF YORK.

*Edward-mūcōmd took the sceptre of power,
 Edward the fifth was destroyed in the tower :
 The third Richard-mūvīndō the kingdom did guide,
 Till by Richmond, in battle, at Bosworth he died.*

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

*Henry the seventh-mūdīsō came on,
 The eighth Henry-mēstōpōd then sat on the throne ;
 Edward the sixth-mōsūrd afterwards came,
 And Mary-mēssēndō, who kindled the flame
 In which Protestant martyrs their being laid down,
 Till mēssīd-Eliza in turn took the crown.*

THE HOUSE OF STUART.

*The first James-mēctēnōd to Eliza succeeded ;
 Charles the first-mēcāsūdē was tried and beheaded.
 In the Common-wealth Cromwell mēcūpōd was lord ;
 Charles the second-mēcūbīd to the throne was restored
 The second James-mōcdīs the sceptre laid down,
 And William of Orange, ascended the throne.*

THE REVOLUTION.

*William and Mary-mēcūpōd ascended,
 Then Anne-mērōtāde, and the Stuarts were ended.*

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

*The first George mērmūdō as sovereign was hailed,
 George the second-mērārđ the Pretender assailed;
 The third George-mērēctōđ our father and friend,
 The fourth George-miātōđ, whose reign hath an end,
 The fourth William-mīntōđ whom Heaven defend.*

NOTE.—The technical words denote the *commencement* of each reign.

ON THE CONNEXION OF GEOGRAPHY WITH HISTORY.

HISTORY and Geography are inseparably united: the one explains the situation, boundaries, divisions, and natural features of a country; the other details, in order of time, all that relates to its inhabitants. It would be equally useless to confine ourselves to geographical studies which relate to the earth, or parts thereof, taken abstractedly from its occupants; and to prosecute historical research with no reference to those particulars which it is the object of geography to explain.

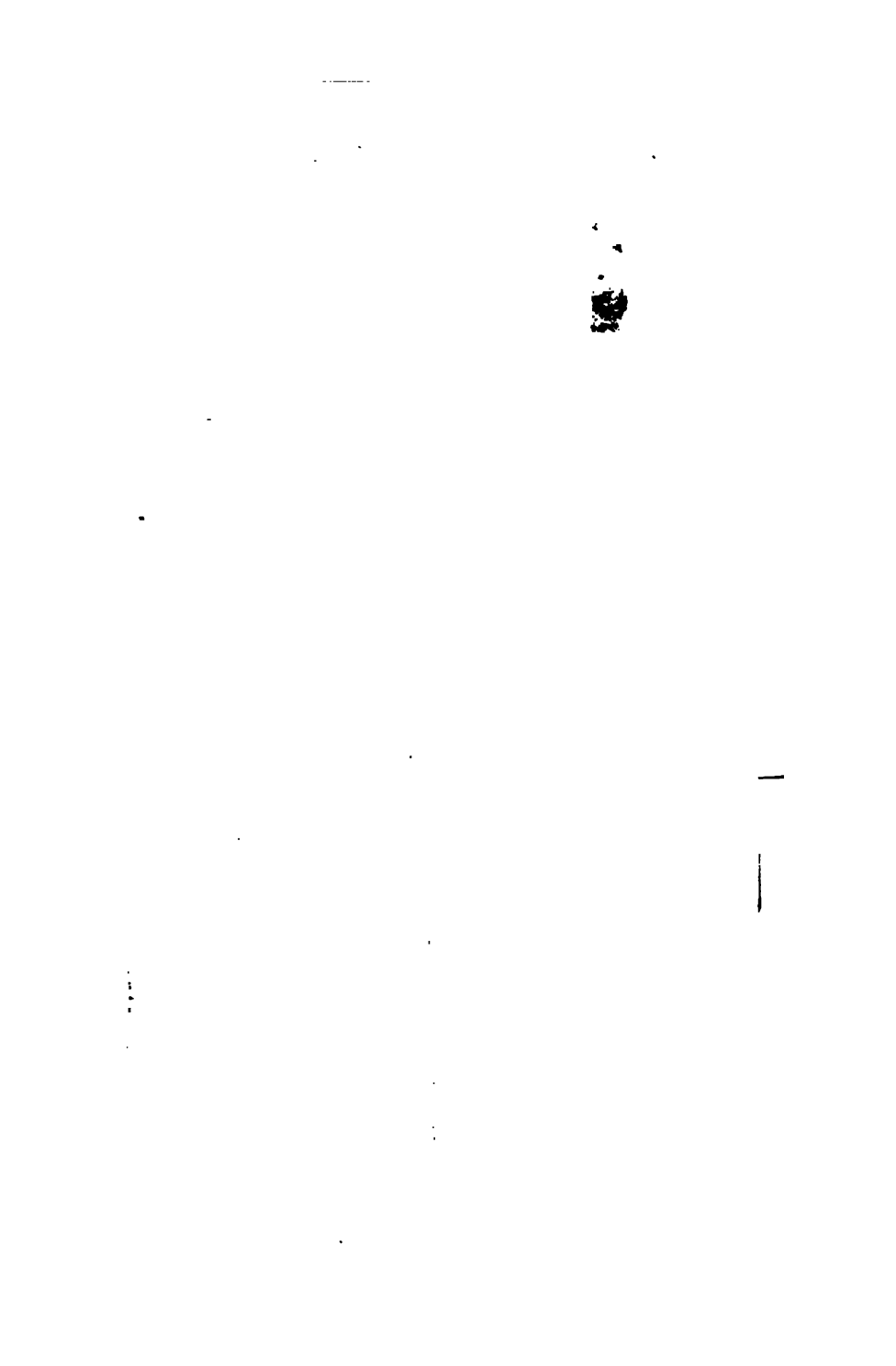
The fundamental principles of history, it has been observed, consist of great leading facts; and the elements of geography, in like manner embrace only the important and distinctive features of a country. Nothing renders the pursuit of geographical knowledge more difficult and unprofitable than the very general adoption in schools and families of those diffuse treatises, which, how excellent soever they may be as books of reference, are utterly unsuitable for incul-

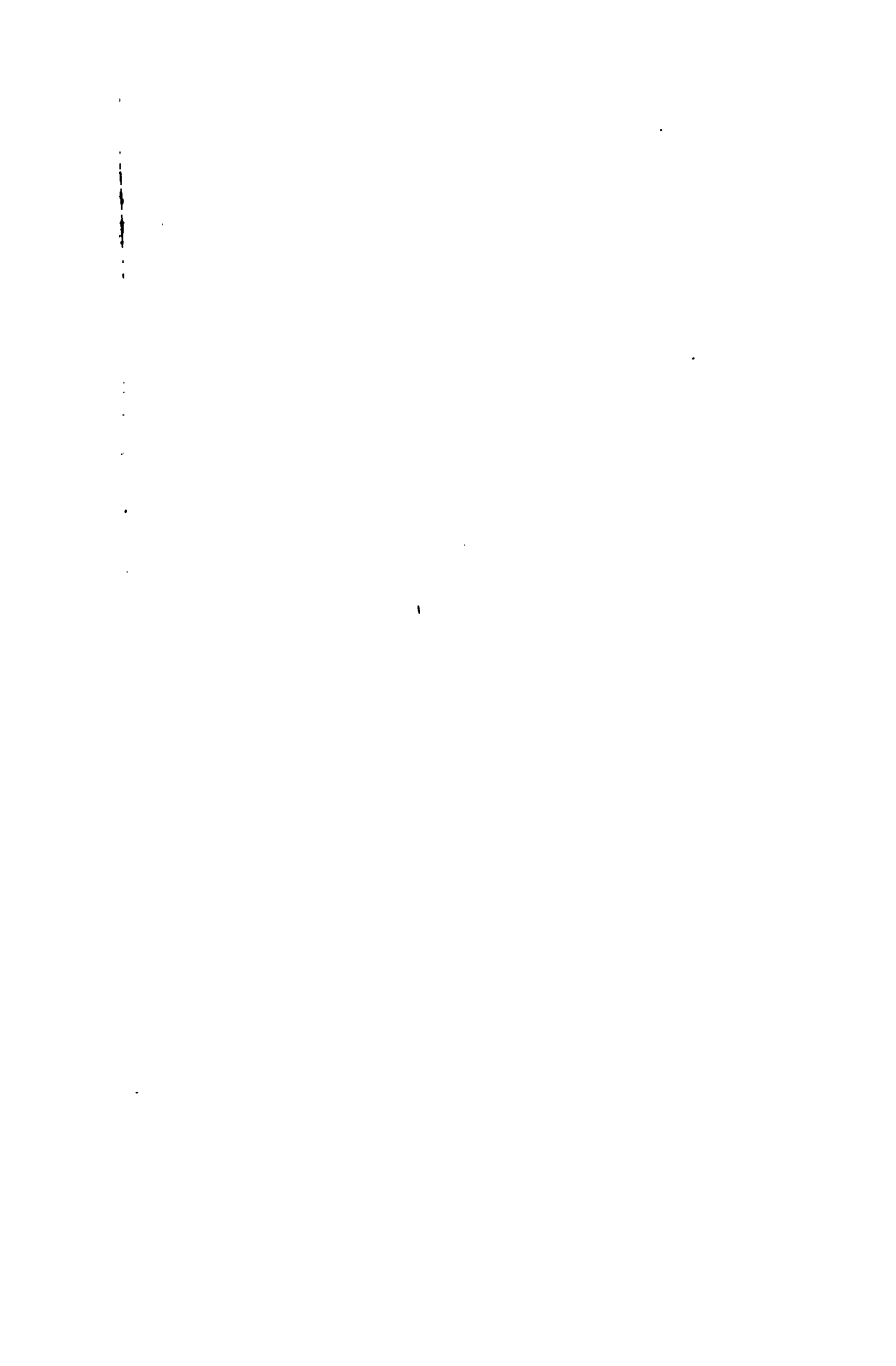
ating first principles. The rudiments of geography are usually made to consist of a very extended nomenclature of countries, their divisions, and subdivisions; of mountains, lakes, rivers and towns; of population returns, and other minor particulars. Then, in the article of maps, the student is presented with a crowded mass of small writing, intermixed with numerous rivers, outlines of hills, boundary lines, and lesser divisions. He considers it, as he justly may, a very ingenious puzzle; and his frequent amusement will be, to attempt a passage with the point of his pencil from one position in the map to another, without running foul of the intermediate towns. Clear away nine-tenths of the cities, as great a proportion of the rivers, and nearly all the hills, and you will then have a map vastly improved, and much better suited for his use.

The maps or diagrams introduced into the present work, have been designed with express reference to this synopsis of English History, and are intended to furnish so much geographical information as is necessary to render it intelligible. It will be found an useful exercise to copy these maps, and impress their details on the memory, before commencing the history.

COMPARATIVE GEOGRAPHY.

THE comparative geography of a country exhibits its divisions, subdivisions, and general features at different periods of its history. That of England, for instance, shows the relation which the Roman settlements, the Heptarchal monarchies, and the modern counties bear to each other.





I. ROMAN BRITAIN.

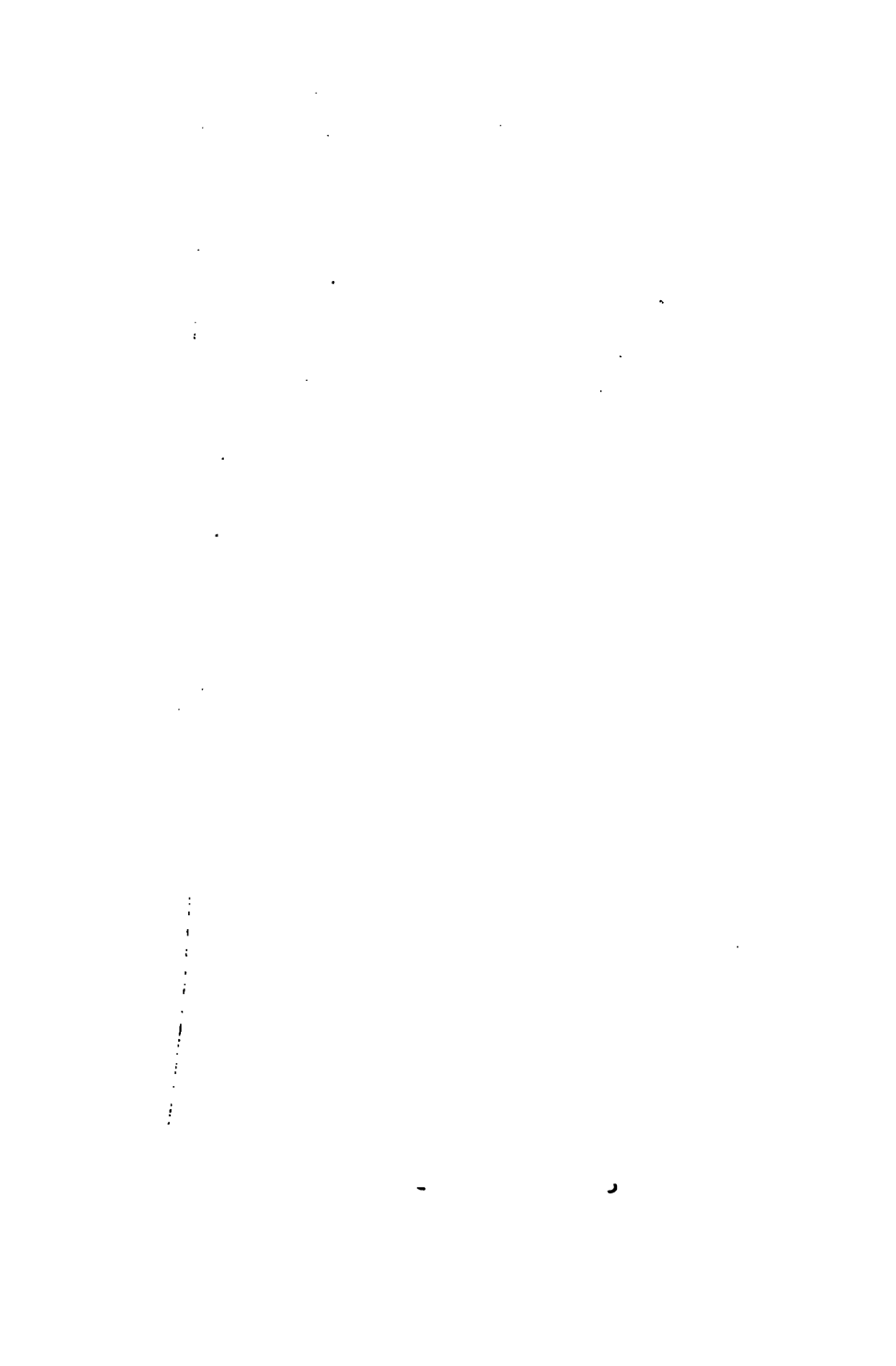
BRITAIN was divided by the Romans into *Britannia Prima*, which comprehended the southern portion of the country lying within the rivers Thames and Severn; *Britannia Secunda*, Wales; *Maxima Cæsariensis*, extending eastward from the Thames to the Humber; and westward, from the Severn to the Mersey; and *Flavia Cæsariensis*, reaching from the Humber to the Tyne, and from the Mersey to Solway Frith.

The subjoined table exhibits the divisions of the country at the time of Cæsar's invasion, and their relative extent. The names by which they are known to us were conferred by the Romans.

ANCIENT DIVISIONS.	EXTENT.	CHIEF TOWNS.
1. Danmonii	{ Cornwall Devon	{ Isca Danmoniarum, <i>Exeter.</i>
2. Durotriges	{ Dorset	{ Durnovaria, <i>Dorchester.</i>
3. Belgæ	{ Somerset Wiltshire Hampshire (northern part) Isle of Wight	{ Aquæ Solis, <i>Bath.</i>
4. Atrebatii	{ Berkshire	{ Galleva, <i>Wallingford.</i>
5. Regni	{ Surrey Sussex Hampshire (southern part)	{ Noviomagus, <i>Winchester.</i>
6. Cantium	{ Kent	{ Durovernum, <i>Canterbury.</i>
7. Trinobantes	{ Middlesex Essex	{ Londinum, <i>London.</i>

ANCIENT DIVISIONS.	EXTENT.	CHIEF TOWNS.
8. Iceni	Suffolk Norfolk Cambridge Huntingdon	Venta Icenorum Caster. <i>Norwich.</i>
9. Catiuchlani	Buckingham Hertford Bedford	Verulamium, <i>Verulam by St Albans.</i>
10. Dobunī.	Gloucester Oxford	Glevum, <i>Gloucester.</i>
11. Silures	Hereford Monmouth Radnor Brecnock Glamorgan	Isca Silurum, <i>Caerleon.</i>
12. Dimetæ	Cærmearthen Pembroke Cardigan	Maridunum, <i>Carmarthen.</i>
13. Ordovices	Flint Denbigh Merioneth Montgomery Carnarvon Isle of Anglesey	Segointum, <i>near Carnarvon</i>
14. Cornavii	Chester Shropshire Stafford Warwick Worcester	Deva, <i>Chester.</i>
15. Coritani	Lincoln Nottingham Derby Leicester Rutland Northampton	Lindum, <i>Lincoln.</i>
16. Brigantes	York Lancaster Westmorland Cumberland Durham	Eboracum, <i>York.</i>





II. SAXON ENGLAND.

THIS map exhibits the boundaries of the Saxon Heptarchal Kingdoms, and also the modern division into counties. It should be observed, that the Saxons possessed no authority in Wales; the Britons retreated before them, till they had reached the mountain fastnesses of that country, whence they were not driven till the time of Edward I. These Saxon kingdoms were totally independent of each other; but in times of great danger, the Wittenagemot, or Grand Council was summoned to choose a common leader of their united forces. The division of England into shires or counties is ascribed to Alfred; the modern arrangement, however, differs materially from his partition of the country. Each shire (or *share*) was governed by an Ealdorman (or Elder man) a person whom age and experience had rendered worthy of authority. After the Danish conquest, this title gave place to that of Earl, an appellative implying a man of rank. Ultimately, the duties of the office were entrusted to a deputy, called the Shire-reeve, or Sheriff. The term county, is derived from the Norman counts.

The Saxon principalities, and their relation to the modern divisions of the country, are shewn in the following table.

KINGDOMS.	EXTENT.	FOUNDED A. D.	DISSOLVED A. D.	FOUNDERS.
1. Kent	Kent	457	823	Hengist
2. Sussex, or South Saxons	{ Sussex Surrey	} 491	600	Ella.

KINGDOMS.	EXTENT.	FOUNDED A. D.	DISSOLVED A. D.	FOUNDERS.
3. Wessex, or West Saxons	Part of Cornwall Devonshire Dorsetshire Somersetshire Wiltshire Hampshire Berkshire	519	827	Cerdic.
4. Essex, or East Saxons	Essex Middlesex Part of Hertfordshire	527	810	Erkenwin.
5. Northum- berland	Yorkshire Lancashire Durham Westmorland Cumberland Northumberland Part of Scotland	547	827	Ida.
6. East Angles	Norfolk Suffolk Cambridgeshire Gloucestershire Herefordshire Worcestershire Warwickshire Leicestershire Rutlandshire Northamptonshire Lincolnshire	575	792	Uffa.
7. Mercia	Huntingdonshire Bedfordshire Buckinghamshire Oxfordshire Staffordshire Derbyshire Shropshire Nottinghamshire Cheshire Part of Hertfordsh.	585	823	Crida.

III. ENGLAND AND WALES.

ENGLAND (i. e. England and Wales) is bounded to the north by Scotland; on the south by the British Channel; on the west by St. George's Channel and Irish Sea; and on the east by the German ocean. The straits of Dover separate it from France; though a probable conjecture that at some distant period it was connected with the continent. The most important rivers are the Severn, Thames, Humber, Trent, Tyne, Tees and Mersey. The counties and chief towns are comprised in the following table.

ENGLAND.

COUNTIES.		CHIEF TOWNS.
Bedfordshire	-	Bedford.
Berkshire	-	Reading.
Buckinghamshire	-	Buckingham.
Cambridgeshire	-	Cambridge.
Cheshire	-	Chester.
Cornwall	-	Launceston.
Cumberland	-	Carlisle.
Derbyshire	-	Derby.
Devonshire	-	Exeter.
Dorsetshire	-	Dorchester.
Durham	-	Durham.
Essex	-	Chelmsford.
Gloucestershire	-	Gloucester.
Hampshire	-	Southampton.
Herefordshire	-	Hereford.
Hertfordshire	-	Hertford.
Huntingdonshire	-	Huntingdon.
Kent	-	Maidstone.
Lancashire	-	Lancaster.
Leicestershire	-	Leicester.

ENGLAND.

COUNTIES.			CHIEF TOWNS.
Lincolnshire	-	-	Lincoln.
Middlesex	-	-	London.
Monmouthshire	-	-	Monmouth.
Norfolk	-	-	Norwich
Northamptonshire		-	Northampton.
Northumberland	-	-	Newcastle.
Nottinghamshire		-	Nottingham.
Oxfordshire	-	-	Oxford.
Rutlandshire	-	-	Oakham.
Shropshire	-	-	Shrewsbury.
Somersetshire	-	-	Bath.
Staffordshire	-	-	Stafford.
Suffolk	-	-	Ipswich.
Surrey	-	-	Guildford.
Sussex	-	-	Chichester.
Warwickshire	-	-	Warwick.
Westmorland	-	-	Appleby.
Wiltshire	-	-	Salisbury.
Worcestershire	-	-	Worcester.
Yorkshire.	-	-	York.

WALES.

Anglesea	-	-	Beaumaris.
Brecknockshire	-	-	Brecon.
Carmarthenshire		-	Carmarthen.
Cardiganshire	-	-	Cardigan.
Carnarvonshire	-	-	Bangor.
Denbighshire	-	-	Denbigh.
Flintshire	-	-	Flint.
Glamorganshire	-	-	Cardiff.
Merionethshire	-	-	Bala.
Montgomeryshire	-	-	Montgomery.
Pembrokeshire	-	-	Pembroke.
Radnorshire	-	-	Radnor.

The diagrams appended to the present work, fully illustrate the brief notices we have given of the progressive or comparative geography of our country; and, taken in connexion with the preceding tables, embody all the information which is necessary to a clear understanding of the elements of English History. It has been already observed, that the division of the kingdom by Alfred, materially differs from the present arrangement of the counties, both in number and extent. As divided by the Saxon monarch, England consisted of only thirty-two shires. Wales was unconquered; and the district comprehending Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmorland, was subject to the Scots: the modern counties of Durham and Lancashire were included in Yorkshire, Cornwall in Devonshire, and Rutland in Northamptonshire. It was not till the time of Henry the Eighth, that the extent and number of the counties as they exist in the present day, were established and defined. This monarch gave to the counties of England, and to those of Wales, the precise boundaries and distinctive appellations by which they are known to us. The number of these shires is now fifty-two: England being separated into forty, and Wales into twelve.

The modern name of the country (England) is derived from the Angles, a people who came hither from the Cimbric, Chersonese, or Jutland, and who after some time possessed themselves of extensive districts in the northern and eastern provinces. Whence it obtained the name of Britain is not decided; some say from a word in the ancient language, allusive to the common practice of staining the human body with various colours and in fanciful devices;

others contend for its derivation from Prydain, a leader of the Cymri, and the first legislator in Britain. The country has also been called Albion, from the whiteness of its cliffs.

HISTORIA TECHNICA ANGLICANÆ

BRITAIN, PRIOR TO THE ROMAN INVASION.

ABORIGINES OF BRITAIN.

CONSIDERABLE obscurity attaches to the early history of Britain. The accounts concerning it, which have descended to us, are for the most part compiled from oral tradition, monumental remains, and other imperfect vehicles for the transmission of historical knowledge. The first records of a country are usually little more than a poetical tale: ascertained facts are scanty and strangely exaggerated; while fable is adopted as the readiest means of connecting them, and of imparting an extraordinary interest to the memorials of a past age. British history is not less veiled by fiction than that of other nations; but by laborious investigation and deduction, some important facts relating to the first inhabitants have been ascertained, and with these the present synopsis may properly commence.

The Cymri, Celtæ, or Gauls, who in the course of their migrations, had settled successively in the countries of Thrace, Germany, and France, are said to have entered Britain so early as a thousand years prior to

the birth of our Saviour. They came hither in hopes of obtaining a more quiet and settled habitation than could be found on the continent. Their tribes having increased so greatly in number, the first settlements became insufficient to contain their population; and the weaker were consequently driven forth to establish themselves in other countries. Some time after the arrival of the first comers, two other tribes, who had been dwelling in France, came over to join their brethren, having with them one Prydain as their leader.

The country was known to the Cymri, before they adopted it for their habitation, by a name importing *the green space of smooth hills*; but after their arrival it was called the *honey isle*, and subsequently Britain, from Prydain its first governor and legislator.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT.

BEFORE the coming of Prydain, the Cymri possessed no laws, and were without any form of government. There was no restraint laid upon the will, and consequently many disorders had crept in amongst them; the strong oppressed the weak, and every advantage was on the side of hardihood and ferocious daring. Prydain soon discovered a necessity for establishing an organized government. He divided the island into three provinces, and formed a code of laws by which the rights and privileges of the whole community might be secured, and its welfare advanced. The provinces were independent of each other; and the governing power was divided amongst a number of petty rulers. In times of great danger, however, the provinces united their forces, and chose, by common

consent, from among their princes, a commander-in-chief, who was invested with the title of King of Britain. Their army consisted chiefly of foot, but they could provide also a considerable number of horse. They were accustomed to use chariots in battle, with short scythes fastened to the axletrees, and these being driven furiously into the midst of the enemy, usually turned the scale of victory in their favour. The form of government, as established by Prydain, continued with but little variation till the descent of Cæsar on the island.

RELIGION OF THE ANCIENT BRITONS.

THE religion of the Cymri, or ancient Britons, was one of the most considerable parts of their government. They had retained some faint recollections of the pure faith, through all their wanderings; and these they blended with an idolatrous system, of which the Druids were the guardians and teachers, and wherein we discover frequent allusion to Noah, the ark, and the deluge which desolated the earth in the days of that patriarch.

The Druids were a class of men held in the greatest estimation by the ancient Britons, on account of their knowledge and strict morality; and the most extensive authority was vested in them over all matters. Their chief duties consisted in imparting instruction to the ignorant, and promoting peace. The term *Druid*, literally signifies a worshipper of the oak, and was applied to them in consequence of the veneration with which that tree was regarded by them, and the use they made of it in all their sacrifices and religious services. When Prydain had promulgated his

code of laws, he intrusted the due administration of them to the Druids, or at least made them supreme arbiters in all questions arising out of those institutes. Thenceforward the Druids increased in number, and were regarded with great veneration. The religion they inculcated became the established faith of the country, and so continued till the introduction of Christianity.

During the occupation of this country by the Romans, several of the British princes were taken captive and sent to Rome. One of these, named Bran, afterwards returned to his own country, bringing with him some faint knowledge of the Christian religion. Druidism then began slowly to decline; and after a lapse of 600 hundred years the diffusion of the true faith, through the preaching of Augustine, wrought its utter overthrow.

THE DRUIDS.

THE Druids were divided into three classes, severally named Bards, Vates, and Druids.

The Bards consisted of poets, genealogists, and historians; they composed the sacred songs, immortalized the deeds of heroes, preserved the particulars of family descents, and perpetuated the memory of past occurrences by public recitations in the assemblies of the people. The Vates included physicians, diviners, and musicians. The third class, the Druids properly so called, administered the offices of religion, and were superior to either of the two before mentioned; to them also was exclusively confined the important work of instructing the British youth in religion and morality.

To preserve order in this numerous priesthood, and to maintain its high character unblemished, it was

deemed necessary that the great body which composed it should be under subjection to one supreme head. A chief priest, or Arch-druid, was therefore chosen from among them; and so extensive were the power, honour, and emoluments attached to the office, that the election was not unfrequently the cause of civil war. His usual residence was in the Isle of Anglesea, or Mona; and he was appealed to as the chief judge and referee in all matters, whether religious or political.

The learning of the Druids comprehended, among other things, divination, philosophy, astronomy, and medicine; and in so great repute were they held for wisdom, that in the time of Julius Cæsar it was not an unusual circumstance for the youth of France to visit this country in order to profit by their instructions. They conducted their pupils into the consecrated groves, as being the most suitable place for the revelation of knowledge. Their learning was contained in verses, not written, but orally transmitted from one to the other, and their disciples were sometimes occupied twenty years in the acquisition; for though the Druids were versed in letters, they did not consider it lawful to commit their religious sentiments to writing. In consequence, their knowledge remained stationary; and the great mass of the people continued in ignorance for the want of facilities in acquiring information.

To excite a higher degree of reverence, and to distinguish themselves from the people, the druids assumed robes of office, and each wore a chain of gold about his neck. Different colours were appropriated to the three classes. The Bards adopted *blue*, (which colour they considered to be an emblem of peace) and the Vates, *green*. The Druids appeared

in *white* robes, to denote their own purity, and the sacred character of their office. Arrayed in this pompous dress, they ministered their religious rites in the temple, in the courts of their princes, or in the huts of the common people; for it was seldom that any religious service was performed without one of their body being present. An artificial egg, called the adder's egg, was preserved by each of the Druids as a peculiar emblem of office, and an image of the Ark*. In this egg was a glass ring, called the adder's pebble, or stone; and varying in colour according to the order of its possessor. Rings, uniting the three colours—blue, green, and white, were presented by the Druids to their disciples. Many virtues were attributed to these sacred tokens. The discipline which the Druids exercised over the people was extremely severe. As they were supreme judges in all affairs, civil and religious, they were not wanting in means to enforce their decrees. Nonconformity to their commands, was punished by excommunication; a penalty so terrible as to be more feared than death itself. The persons of the excommunicated were considered unclean and abominable; to be avoided by society; to be debarred any participation in the religious services, and deprived of all protection from the laws.

The privileges of the priesthood were extensive. They were relieved from toll, custom, or tax; and from all military services. The extent of their yearly revenue is not known; but when we take into con-

* The principle of life being contained within an egg, the Druids considered it a meet emblem of the Ark, which included the remnant of mankind, preserved from the Deluge.

sideration that the people dedicated to their gods all spoils captured in war, and that the Druids were not only judges and arbiters in all matters, but also the sole repository whence the British youth drew their instruction, it is tolerably certain that their income must have been very considerable, and themselves the richest and most honourable portion of the community.

The Druidical religion, it has been observed, was a corruption of the patriarchal faith; and it imperceptibly merged into a system of gross superstition, retaining nothing beyond the emblematical allusions before mentioned, to identify it with its original. The priests admitted polytheism, or the worship of many gods; erected men into deities, and desecrated their temples by cruel and abominable rites. When the Phœnicians began to trade with this country for tin, their accustomed adoration of the hosts of heaven was gradually adopted by the Britons, and ultimately became incorporated with the national faith.

DRUIDICAL IDOLS.

Strong Hugh, the chief idol of the ancient Britons, was worshipped under the form of a bull, and in connexion with the sun, on which he was supposed to ride. Stonehenge was peculiarly set apart for his services, and the Isle of Anglesea was dedicated to him by the appellation of *the Mount of Hugh Praise*.

Arthur, or *Uthyr Pendragon*, was propitiated as a defender in darkness, an assistant to the husbandman, bard, musician, and diviner, a protector of temples, and a ruler in war. He was said to be girded with the rainbow, his harp was imaged in the stars of heaven, and the constellation, *Ursa Major*, was his representa-

tive in the firmament. A temple was consecrated to him in Carmarthenshire, called *Arthur's Fold*.

Taronwy presided over the elements, and was worshipped under the form of an oak.

Beli was considered the fountain of life and heat, and the flame of the altar was his representative.

Gwydrin (resembling the Grecian Mercury) received divine honours as a guide to pilgrims, and a promoter of religious services.

Gwaednerth, (*the Blood-shedder*), ruled in the battle, and his altar was crimsoned with the blood of human victims. *Budd Ner* was propitiated as the *Giver of Victory*.

Ceridwen, a powerful female deity, was worshipped in connexion with the moon, and under a variety of shapes and names. She was supposed to assist the initiation of youth into the druidical mysteries.

Andraste was the goddess of spoils, and had many groves consecrated to her service.

The above are only a few of the principal deities recognized by the ancient Britons; besides them they had a number of inferior gods, and many objects of their worship were the inanimate productions of nature.

DRUIDICAL OPINIONS.

MAN, according to the druidical doctrines, was said to be compounded of seven elements, and endued with the seven faculties of will, feeling, speech, breathing, sight, hearing and smelling. Every human being, they taught, had three states of existence; the animal life, which was entirely evil—the human life, wherein good and evil were blended—and a future life of happiness in heaven. The human soul was

considered to be a corporeal something that could never die; and by a series of transmigrations, from one form to another, it was to be perfected and rendered fit for the enjoyment of paradise. After its elevation to the human, or second state of existence, necessity might arise for the soul to return back into animal life, but the passage to eternal felicity remained for ever open through transmigration.

The gods were to be appeased by sacrifice; and if a man voluntarily submitted to the punishment imposed for his offences, sufficient atonement had been made, and his soul had recovered its purity. The ultimate purpose of the divine government being the happiness of every creature, the evils of this life were to be considered as tending to promote and accelerate that end. Death was a desirable event, both to the evil and to the good; it introduced the former into a fresh stage of existence, wherein they might rid themselves of impurities; and to the latter, it opened the gates of endless bliss. Perfect knowledge was not to be attained till the creature had reached its super-human state; when the soul would be endued with a consciousness of all its transmigrations. Man, in his state of happiness, was to undergo the most pleasing changes for ever; yet the transitions from one state to another were to be unattended with the pains and deprivations he suffered in his inferior transmigrations. Paradise was supposed to be situated in the eastern parts of the earth.

DRUIDICAL TEMPLES.

THE Druids deemed it unlawful to inclose their deities within walls, and therefore performed all their

religious ceremonies in sacred groves and places open to the face of heaven. Their temples were constructed on scientific principles, and argue some proficiency in astronomical knowledge. They consisted of large stones arranged in a circle, and generally answering in number to the signs of the zodiac, and the cycle of years in use amongst them. The entrance was to the north-east, and three or more large stones, representing the deities of the place, stood opposite thereto. In the centre of each temple was the *Cromlech*, a vast stone, "with one head inclining towards the ground, and supported by other stones in an upright position." Some suppose the *Cromlech* to have been a sepulchral monument, while others, and with more probability, consider them to have been covenant stones and altars for sacrifice.

The Druids did not confine their religious services to the day: often in the still moon-light they resorted to their temples, and the night-wind bore from the consecrated groves the dying cries of the victims devoted at the altar. They offered at times, wheat, honey, new milk, acorns and other things. Their usual sacrifices were sheep and oxen; but as they held, that nothing short of human life could make atonement for the life of man, the most dreadful offerings were occasionally made in their temples to the cruel deities whose favour they sought to propitiate. Prisoners taken in war, or condemned malefactors, were the most acceptable victims; but when these could not be obtained, they did not scruple to select from the innocent. The principle of voluntary submission was so earnestly enforced, that many, it is probable, submitted without a murmur to be made the sacrifice, from an assurance that by this

means they procured for themselves great favour of their gods. On great occasions the Druids caused to be constructed large images of wicker work, in which they inclosed a vast number of human victims; then setting fire underneath, they consumed the image and all that it contained.

INITIATION INTO THE DRUIDICAL MYSTERIES.

YOUTH, intended to be admitted into the druidical orders, were enjoined a long period of probation; and were expected to perform a variety of ceremonies, not only difficult and painful, but which frequently proved fatal. Amongst other probational exercises, was the confinement of the pupil, during nine months, in the womb or court of Ceridwen; and it is probable that the cromlechs were the places in which this vigil was performed. After further trials, he was finally inclosed in a kind of boat or shell, and turned adrift on the sea: if he was fortunate enough to land safely on the stones called, Sarn-Batrig, a noted landing-place, he was there received as a worthy descendant of the patriarch, Noah, and admitted to a full knowledge of the druidical mysteries.

DRUIDICAL FESTIVALS.

THE Druids celebrated three yearly festivals, on the tenth day of March, the first day of May, and at Midsummer.

The March festival marked the commencement of the year, and the cutting of the mistletoe was the principal ceremony connected with it. When the oak,

bearing misletoe, had been found, one of the Druids ascended the tree, and with a consecrated golden knife severed the branches, which he received with profound respect in his white robe. This being done, the remainder of the day was spent in feasting, and sacrificing to the gods.

The May festival frequently lasted some days. Two bonfires were lighted in every village, to the honour of Beli, or the Sun; which at this season usually begins to warm and invigorate the earth with his beams. All men and animals intended for sacrifice, were made to pass between these fires, while the surrounding multitude shouted in honour of the god.

At this feast, the Druids commemorated the Deluge, and the preservation of Noah. Some lake was consecrated for the purpose; and in the midst the flood-god was supposed to have his residence. If the lake had nothing growing on, or appearing above its surface, they constructed a small vessel to signify the Ark, and launched it on the waters. The Druids (assembled in a numerous body, habited in their proper robes, and wearing garlands of flowers) walked in procession round the lake, singing, dancing, and piercing their thighs with sharp instruments. After this, three oxen were employed to draw the vessel on shore, to signify the resting of the Ark on Mount Ararat. At this festival the young probationer was sent adrift on the sea, as before alluded to.

The Midsummer festival was a thanks-offering for the approaching harvest, and was celebrated by the kindling of fires, and the offering of sacrifice.

On the last day of October every family was required, under pain of excommunication, to extinguish the household fires; and on the first of November all the

people repaired to the temple, whence they brought consecrated fire to rekindle them. No one dared to give a portion of his holy fire to another: each person was bound to receive it from the hands of the Druid, to whom he paid a small sum for its delivery. This flame from the altar was supposed to purify the people, and preserve their dwellings from destruction by fire during the ensuing year. The Druids obliged all comers to pay up the arrears which they owed to the priesthood; if they failed to do this, the customary privilege was denied them, and being thus excommunicated, they were excluded from all intercourse with society. The festival concluded with an offering of thanks for the gathered harvest.

Druidism, like most other symbolical religions, degenerated into a system of abominable licentiousness. The public mind was not able to penetrate the mystic truths hidden in the unseemly rites of the temples; and their obvious effect was, therefore, to deprave the heart, and to free the passions from all controul.

THE ROMANS.

INTRODUCTORY OBSERVATIONS.

THE Roman republic, at the period when Cæsar invaded this country, was that to which almost all the kingdoms of the world paid homage. Three powerful men had erected themselves into a triumvirate, and divided the government between them. To Cæsar, who was one of them, was allotted the country of the Gauls (France). Having subdued this people, his attention was directed to Britain; and after an obstinate defence on the part of the natives, he effected a landing in the island.

Britain was but little known to the rest of the world before the coming of the Romans; and even at some distance of time after their invasion of the country, Virgil speaks contemptuously of its inhabitants, as a barbarous people, "a race disjoined from all the world beside." At the period of Cæsar's arrival, the Britons possessed no better habitations than low and ill-constructed cottages; their usual food was milk and flesh procured in the chase, and the greater part were employed in feeding large herds of cattle. Their dress consisted of the skins of beasts; much of the figure was, however, left naked, and stained blue. Their hair was long, and flowed over the back and shoulders; it was allowed to grow on the upper lip, but the beard was kept close shaven. They were divided into a number of small principalities, each

under the direction of its respective leader. In common with every rude and savage people, the Britons discovered a strong propensity for sublime poetry: every chieftain retained a bard, who drew up the annals of his family in verse, and sung, or recited them, at the festive board; to impress them on the memory, and hand them down to posterity. The bard accompanied his song or recitation on the harp, and could sway the passions of his hearers at pleasure.

MEMORIAL VERSES.

Cæsar-esso triumphs o'er
The natives of the British shore.
Claudius-undo now doth come
To Britain with the sons of Rome.
Boadicea-comd o'erturns
The Roman power, and London burns.
Agricola-dit doth command
The final conquest of the land.
Valentinian-uduli, Rome
Declining, calls her warriors home.

CÆSAR'S DESCENT ON BRITAIN.

Cæsar-esso triumphs o'er
The natives of the British shore.

CÆSAR having completed his conquest of the Gauls, formed a design of adding Britain to the Roman empire; and as a pretext for invading the country, he accused the Britons of having rendered assistance to his late enemies. The natives endeavoured to propitiate him, by offers of obedience: their am-

bassadors were courteously treated by Cæsar, and by his desire, one of his friends accompanied them on their return, to persuade the Britons to form an alliance with the Roman people. They, however, instead of listening to the proposal, cast the mediator into prison.

Cæsar, justly exasperated by this act of treachery, immediately embarked with two of his legions, and quickly arrived on the coast, near Dover. The Britons, who had been timely apprised of his approach, collected all their forces on the cliffs, and there waited his coming. Perceiving the difficulties that must attend any attempt to reach the shore, owing to the roughness of the sea, and the steepness of the acclivities, Cæsar directed his galleys to proceed to a more convenient place, about eight miles farther where the shore gradually declined, and offered greater facilities for landing. The Britons were not slow in discovering his intentions, and hastened down with their war-chariots and a strong armed force to dispute his landing.

The Roman ships drew so great a depth of water, that it was found impracticable to bring them near the beach; the soldiers were therefore obliged, though encumbered with heavy armour, to leap overboard and, fixing an unsteadfast footing in the waves, contend with the Britons who stood on firm ground, close by the water's edge. The natives hurled their javelins with vigour, and so obstinately resisted the approaches of the Romans, that the latter were on the point of giving way, when the standard bearer of the tenth legion leaped overboard, calling on his comrades to follow him, and not suffer the eagle to fall into the hands of the enemy. All that were in the galley

immediately followed him, and their example diffused its influence throughout the legions, who leaped in mutual emulation from their ships, and pushed forward through the waves with great resolution.

A dreadful conflict now ensued; but the Britons continued to maintain the superiority which their advantageous situation afforded them, till Cæsar ordered the boats of his fleet to advance and sustain the soldiers, who had not as yet been able to effect a footing on the shore. Thus supported, the Romans were enabled to gain the land; when their military skill and discipline quickly turned the scale of victory in their favour. A total rout of the Britons ensued; and their ambassadors waited upon Cæsar to negotiate a peace, which was granted them. They, however, shortly after renewed hostilities, on learning that a number of galleys containing a reinforcement of Cæsar's army, had been driven back by a storm. Again they were obliged to sue for peace; and Cæsar, after having repaired his fleet, returned back into Gaul.

Three years afterwards, Cæsar made a second descent on the island, bringing with him a powerful force, consisting of five legions, and two thousand horse. The Britons, terrified at its appearance, retired to the inland parts of the country, whither they were followed by Cæsar, and soon put to flight. After a succession of victories, he took hostages from them for the due performance of their treaty with him, and finally departed from Britain.

For nearly a century after the departure of Cæsar, a chasm occurs in the history of this country, which can be supplied only from conjecture. During the reign of Augustus, the Romans threatened a return to

enforce the payment of their tribute-money, but this menace was never carried into execution. The emperor Caligula formed a design against Britain, which terminated in wild extravagance and empty boast.

THE DESCENT OF CLAUDIUS ON BRITAIN.

Claudius-undo, now doth come
To Britain with the sons of Rome.

THE period had now arrived for Britain to succumb beneath the overwhelming power of Rome. Claudius Cæsar, arriving in the country, defeated the natives and made considerable advances into the island. He behaved, however, with so great moderation and humanity to the conquered, that in token of gratefulness, they raised a temple wherein they offered him divine honours. After a space of six months, he returned to the continent, leaving Plautius, one of his generals, in command of the province. To the latter, succeeded Ostorius Scapula, who found a powerful enemy in the Silures, a brave people, having for their leader Caractacus, the most renowned amongst all the native princes. When the two armies met, the British general endeavoured, by addresses, full of glowing and animating language, to inspire his soldiers with the necessary courage for the conflict. He reminded them of their former freedom, recalled to their memories the deeds of their forefathers, and conjured them to preserve inviolate all that was dear to them as fathers, husbands, and children. These rude and undisciplined forces could, however, offer but a faint resistance against the military skill and prowess of the Romans. They were defeated with great

slaughter, and their general, Caractacus, was taken prisoner and sent in chains to Rome. Claudius endeavoured to render the entry of his captive into the imperial city as solemn and striking as possible. A vast number of British prisoners swelled the procession; the family of Caractacus followed after these, and the general himself walked last, with a sedate yet undaunted countenance. Surveying the splendour which met his eyes at every town, he gave vent to the exclamation,—"Alas! how could a people, possessed of such magnificence at home, envy me a humble cottage in Britain!" Arriving in the imperial presence, he there won the favour of Claudius by his noble bearing and eloquent language; insomuch that the emperor commanded him to be set at liberty, and the rest of the captives.

Notwithstanding their losses, the Britons were far from being conquered: but Claudius dying about this time, his successor, Nero, invested Suetonius Paulinus with the command of the army in Britain; and under his management the Roman power was greatly increased in the island. Observing that Mona, or Anglesea, was the chief seat of the Druids, and the place which afforded protection to the routed forces of the Britons, he resolved at once to reduce it. Bravely did the natives oppose his landing on this last retreat of their religion and their liberty. The women, with dishevelled hair, ran up and down the ranks, with flaming torches in their hands, uttering imprecations against the Romans, and exhorting their countrymen to a determined resistance. Multitudes of Druids assembled round their army, and with uplifted hands, invoked the vengeance of their gods. A momentary terror seized the Romans, on beholding this extraordinary spectacle; but the exhortations of

their generals speedily recalled them to a sense of duty. They rushed forward with impetuosity, and drove the Britons from the field of battle; they then burned the Druids in the fires, which the latter had prepared for the immolation of their enemies, and utterly demolished the altars of sacrifice and the sacred groves.

THE HEROISM OF BOADICEA.

Boadicea-come o'erturns

The Roman power, and London burns.

AN act of wanton spoliation and brutality on the part of the Romans, once more excited the enthusiasm of the Britons in defence of their country, and seemed to threaten the annihilation of the imperial power. Prasutagus, king of the Iceni, at his death bequeathed one half of his dominions to the Romans, and the other to his family. The avarice of the Procurator prompted him, however, to seize upon the whole; and when Boadicea, the widow of the deceased king, attempted to remonstrate, he ordered her to be scourged as a slave, and her daughters to be subjected to the most cruel indignities. These enormities occasioned a general revolt throughout the island: and Boadicea herself took the command of the numerous forces assembled to avenge her wrongs. London, which had by this time become a flourishing colony, was quickly reduced to ashes; and the Romans, together with all strangers, to the number of seventy thousand, were slaughtered without distinction. Dreadful was the retribution that followed. Suetonius artfully inveigled the Britons into an engagement, wherein he slew not less than eighty thousand; and their heroine, Boadicea,

fearing what might befall her, should she be taken prisoner, terminated her existence by poison. Suetonius was afterwards removed from the command in Britain, and Petronius Surpilianus, a man of a more mild and humane disposition, appointed in his room.

THE ARRIVAL OF AGRICOLA.

Agricola-dit doth command
The final conquest of the land.

In the reign of Vespasian, Julius Agricola was made governor in Britain. In the course of seven campaigns, he so reduced the power of the Britons, that they may be said thenceforward to have lost all their independence. He extended his conquests into Scotland, and there raised forts for the defence of the northern possessions. The country south of the Friths of Forth and Clyde, being now entirely reduced to a Roman province, the natives began to adopt the manners and habits of their conquerors; and the peace of the country remained undisturbed till the time of Hadrian, who was compelled to visit Britain on account of the incursions then being made on the province by the Caledonians, or Scots. In order to confine the latter within the limits of their own country, he threw up a rampart of turf, extending from the river Tyne to Solway Frith.

The Roman affairs thenceforward underwent little change in Britain, till the decline of the empire caused the gradual withdrawal of the legions from the province, and offered inducements to the northern people to renew their incursions. The emperor Severus found himself unable to vanquish the Caledonians,

and contented himself with substituting a wall of stone, in place of the rampart thrown up by Hadrian, to keep off their attacks on the frontier. Under Constantine, the Britons lived in great tranquillity: and by him the country was divided into the three provinces—*Britannia Prima*, *Britannia Secunda*, and *Maxima Cæsariensis*. The latter of these was afterwards formed into two great divisions—*Maxima Cæsariensis*, and *Flavia Cæsariensis*.

DEPARTURE OF THE ROMANS.

Valentinian-uduli, Rome,

Declining, calls her warriors home.

THE empire of Rome was now besieged on all sides by a host of barbarians from the northern countries, and it became necessary, in the reign of Valentinian, for the Romans entirely to withdraw their legions from Britain, and to leave its inhabitants the free possession of their country. Scarcely had they departed, before the Britons were harassed by the Caledonians; and in their extremity they besought the assistance of Rome. This was several times granted them; but at length the urgent necessities of the empire would not admit the absence of a single legion, and "the groans of the Britons" were ineffectual to procure the assistance of their former masters. When the Romans took their final leave of the island, they had held the possession for nearly four hundred years.

EFFECTS PRODUCED BY THE ROMAN INVASION

It was an invariable rule with the Romans, to introduce into their provinces, as speedily as circumstances admitted, a knowledge of their own language, arts, and manners. This they did from motives of policy: the subjected people were thus imperceptibly withdrawn from everything that would tend to remind them of their former independence, and by adopting the usages and pursuits of their conquerors, they naturally after the lapse of years became identified with them. In the time of Agricola, the British youth of the higher class, began to study the Latin language, which thenceforward was considered a liberal branch of their education. The partial introduction of Christianity into the country, tended also to nourish learning and accelerate the march of civilization. In the arts of architecture, agriculture, and clothing, the Britons made considerable progress during the stay of the Romans. The ground was soon rendered sufficiently fertile, not only to provide an adequate produce for home consumption, but to furnish also large quantities of corn for exportation. The buildings erected by the Romans, furnished the Britons with models for the improvement of their domestic buildings, and the construction of others. In the article of dress, a remarkable change was effected: woollen mantles, tunics, and trowsers took place of their former rude covering; and the practice of colouring the body gradually fell into disuse.

The advantages which the Britons derived from the sojourn of the Romans among them, were not, however, entirely without alloy. The conqueror strikes deepest at the root of liberty, who brings among

the vanquished comforts which they had never known, and arts of which they had been ignorant. The Britons ultimately fell into habits of familiar intimacy with their invaders, and evinced little or no desire to rid themselves of a yoke that was far from oppressive. Freedom, therefore, became an unknown sound; and the energies required for a defensive opposition against any future irruption into their country, insensibly decayed. Luxury, and a love of dress, for both of which they were indebted to the Romans, wholly destroyed the national character, and rendered them a degenerate and effeminate race of men. Hence, when the former abandoned the province, the Britons, instead of being in a condition to preserve the enjoyment of their independence, were left in all the helplessness of infancy, an easy prey to the first people who might choose to seize upon their country.

FROM THE DEPARTURE OF THE ROMANS, TO THE
ARRIVAL OF THE SAXONS.

THE departure of the Romans from their country, was viewed as a calamity by the Britons. The latter had remained so long under the government and protection of Rome, that they possessed neither energy to determine on the means for securing their liberty, nor physical courage to support them in a conflict with an obstinate enemy*. The Caledonians (or Picts

* Many disputes have arisen concerning the origin of the Picts and Scots. The former were most probably a band of the ancient Britons, who on the first arrival of the Romans retired to the most northern parts of the kingdom. The Scots, it would seem, were a troop of adventurers from the ancient Scythia.

and Scots) on the contrary, rejoiced at the abdication, and made immediate preparation for the conquest of southern Britain. They poured down from their northern districts, and, having effected a passage through the first wall, over-ran the country till they reached the rampart of Severus. Here the enfeebled Britons made some show of resistance; but their pusillanimous and indecisive measures afforded advantages to the enemy which the latter did not fail to improve. The mode of attack was singular: the invaders provided themselves with long iron hooks, with which they pulled the Britons from the parapets to the ground. At length several breaches were made in the wall, through which the Caledonians pursued their opponents as far as the border towns, whence, after many acts of cruelty and devastation, they again returned within their own frontiers.

These predatory incursions were annually renewed to the impoverishing of the Britons. Many of those, residing in the northern parts, who had been stripped of their property by the Caledonians, now began a system of plunder against their southern countrymen; and a general anarchy, bringing in its train famine and pestilence, reduced the Britons to the last extremity. Some surrendered to the enemy; others betook themselves to the forests and mountains; while a few, rendered courageous by despair, contended with some degree of spirit against the inroads of the invader. The Caledonians retired for a short time from Briton; but the want of tranquillity and union in the country, induced them to return. In this extremity the natives appealed to the Romans for succour, which the latter were unable to afford. A council of the united provinces was therefore summoned by Vortigern, prince

of Danmonium, and chief sovereign of South Britain, to consider what course should be adopted in the present exigence. After much debate, it was determined that an embassy should be sent to the Saxons, intreating their aid to repel the enemy. This application proved successful : the Saxons had long desired a settlement in Britain, and gladly availed themselves of an invitation to enter the countrys.

THE SAXONS.

THE Saxons were a people of ancient Germany. They considered war as their trade, and esteemed nothing valuable but intrepidity and martial skill. Stooping on no occasion to mercy, but marking all their expeditions with blood and slaughter, they possessed none of that magnanimity which succours and protects the vanquished. Cunning and artifice in planning their expeditions, and relentless cruelty in completing their conquests, were the distinguishing characteristics of the Saxons at the period when they arrived in Britain. They brought back to the island perfect barbarism. The early history of the Saxons in Britain is made up of petty feuds amongst themselves, and unjust oppression towards those they came to succour.

The people included under the general name of Saxons were composed of Saxons, Angles, Jutes and Frisians. The Saxons, properly so called, inhabited the country north of the Elbe, which is now the Duchy of Holstein, in Lower Saxony. The country of the Angli adjoined that of the Saxons on the south-east, and comprehended several divisions of Lower Saxony, eastward of the Elbe. The Jutes, or Cimbri, dwelt in the Cimbrica Chersonesus, or continental part of Denmark, from them called Jutland. The Frisians resided in part of the seven united provinces—Holland, Groningen, and Friesland; and from them the latter province took its name.

GOVERNMENT OF THE SAXONS.

THE government of the Saxons resembled in many particulars that of the ancient Britons. They were divided into a number of independent states, which, however, in times of general danger united their military strength, and acted under the command of a chief, unanimously elected by the whole body. The supreme power was vested in a general council, which assembled at stated intervals, to adjust important matters; while affairs of less moment were determined in an assembly of the provincial rulers. Chiefs, priests, and warriors, were the persons admitted to the national council; and to the latter class none was considered to belong till he had been formally presented with his lance and buckler. Each justiciary or magistrate had an hundred inferior officers to assist him with their advice, and to confer dignity on his tribunal. The capital punishments in use, were hanging and drowning: traitors and deserters suffered by the former, and cowards by the latter. Murder was compensated, in all instances, by fine.

The Saxons were divided into three distinct classes: thanes or nobles, freemen, and slaves. The latter were the absolute property of their lords.

RELIGION OF THE SAXONS.

THE Saxons were Polytheists, or worshippers of many gods. At one period, they considered it derogatory to celestial dignity to confine their religious services within temples, and, like the Druids, performed the sacred rites in groves and recesses of the hills. Ulti-

mately, however, they adopted the general custom of other nations, and erected magnificent temples, wherein they placed statues and images of their deities. To Woden, their god of war, they offered human sacrifices; and though criminals and slaves were the usual victims, when occasion required, persons of the most exalted rank were immolated on their altars. Hymns were accustomed to be sung in their religious solemnities; and oracular knowledge was promulgated in the temple, to direct the movements of a battle, or to assist the decisions of the council.

The Saxons are said to have admitted the doctrine of the soul's immortality, and future retribution. Their conceptions of paradise were suited to the inclinations of a fierce and warlike people. They trusted, that after death, if their conduct in the field had secured them the favour of Woden or Oden, they should be received into his banquet hall; there the day was to be passed in martial diversions, and the night, in feasting and revelry—in quaffing ale or mead, presented by beautiful virgins, and contained in the skulls of those whom they had slain in battle. With their place of future punishment, were associated ideas of unceasing torment.

Divination was much in use amongst the Saxons. The flight and melody of birds, the neighing of white horses, and the appearances observable on the slips of trees, were some of the sources whence they affected to draw supernatural knowledge. The issue of a war was foretold by a combat between a captive of the hostile nation, and one of their own tribe; each being armed with the weapon peculiar to his country. Much stress was also laid on spells, magical incantations, and the predictions of their sorceresses, who they

supposed held intercourse, through the instrumentality of familiar spirits, with their gods.

IDOLS OF THE SAXONS.

THE principal object of adoration was the idol of the *Sun*. The day set apart for the worship of this deity, was called *Suns daeg* or Sunday. A magnificent temple was dedicated to his honour, wherein sacrifices were offered, and rites of adoration paid. He was represented under a male figure, partially clothed, and standing upon a pillar; his face illumined with beams of light, and holding with outstretched arms a burning wheel before his breast.

The *Moon*, worshipped on the second day of the week, called *Monas daeg*, or moon-day, was singularly represented under the female form, with a short coat and a hood, with two large projecting ears. The only allusive emblem that can be understood, being a figure of the crescent moon, which she held near her breast.

Tuisco was adored as the first father and law-giver of the Germans and Scythians. The day appropriated to him was called *Tuiscos daeg*, whence our Tuesday. The form of the idol was that of a venerable sage, clothed in a garment of skins, holding in one hand a sceptre, and with the other, inviting his worshippers to accept his clemency.

Woden or *Oden*, the god of war, resembles in his attributes the Greek Mars. He was a victorious chieftain of the Saxons, to whom, on his decease, the rites of apotheosis were paid; and his temple was crowded with worshippers, supplicating his aid in the battle. The day appointed for his service was called

Wodens daeg, corrupted by time into Wednesday. He was represented in a bold and martial attitude, clad in armour, with broad sword in his uplifted hand.

Thor, whose prototype is found in the Grecian Jupiter, was held in high estimation, not only by the Saxons, but by all the Teutonic tribes. His image was placed majestically in a spacious hall, his brow adorned with a crown of gold, having two circles set with golden stars, and bearing in his hand a kingly sceptre. He was supposed to wield the elements at will, and to have entire governance over all human affairs. The day of his worship was called *Thors daeg*, or Thursday.

Frigu, resembling the classic Venus, was worshipped on *Frigus daeg*, or Friday, and was represented under an equivocal form, holding in her right hand a drawn sword, and in her left a bow. She was considered to be the bestower of love, peace, riches, and plenty.

Seater, whose praises were celebrated on *Seaters daeg*, or Saturday, was a powerful and beneficent deity. He was represented standing on the prickly fins of a perch, holding in his left hand a wheel, and in his right a vessel of water. His standing on the fins of the fish, indicated the ease with which the Saxons should overcome difficulties; the wheel betokened their unity; and the vessel of water was allusive to the kindly showers sent upon the earth by this deity for the production and nourishment of fruits and flowers.

THE ARRIVAL OF THE SAXONS.

The foolish Britons place their trust
In Hengist, Horsa, *Saxons-dust*.

IN compliance with the request of the Britons, the Saxons arrived under the command of Hengist and Horsa, two brothers, much celebrated for their valour, and reputed to have descended from Woden, and landed on the island of Thanet. After expelling the Caledonians, who were unable to contend with a people that inherited valour as their birth-right, they invited over fresh bodies of their countrymen, and contended with the natives for the conquest of a country more fertile than their own. After several battles, in one of which Horsa was killed, Hengist founded the first Saxon kingdom in Britain, that of Kent.

A remnant of the Britons had fled for safety from the Roman arms to the inaccessible mountains of Wales, from which they could not be expelled; neither afterwards could the Saxon invader penetrate their fastnesses, or destroy the barriers which nature had cast around them. They remained for many ages unmixed with the Saxons, and even at this day, the remains of the ancient Britons are to be found in that romantic country.

THE SAXON HEPTARCHY.

THE Saxons founded seven kingdoms in Britain, which are called in history, the Saxon Heptarchy; they all, ultimately, fell under the power of Egbert, king of Wessex, by whom they were united into one kingdom under the name of England. The following memorial lines tell the foundation, dissolution, and union of the kingdoms of the Heptarchy.

MEMORIAL VERSES.

Usred-Kent-Dian the Saxons first fix'd
Upemod-Sussex-cottode the next,
Sempedo-Wessex-iardo came on,
Desers-East-Angles ropade anon.
Surdo-Northumberland-divar they fix,
Suido-Mercia-idan makes six.
Sarode-Essex-dimote alone,
 Then *Diaro-Egbert* unites them in one.

THE KINGDOM OF KENT.

Usred-Kent-dian the Saxons first fix'd.

HENGIST was succeeded in the kingdom of Kent by his son Escus, who possessed little of that military enthusiasm which belonged to his father. All the Saxons, therefore, who were desirous of fame, or of

establishing other settlements in the kingdom, flocked to the standard of Ella, who was then endeavouring to lay the foundation of a new kingdom, that of the South Saxons, or Sussex.

Through the indolent disposition of previous rulers, the Kentish Saxons had become a feeble and effeminate people, when Ethelbert took the reins of power. This prince, however, revived the war-like reputation of his family, and in a long series of contests with the other Heptarchal monarchies succeeded in extending his authority in a good measure over the whole. The most interesting event connected with the reign of Ethelbert, was the introduction of the Christian religion, under his auspices, among the English Saxons. Of this important transaction we shall give more particulars hereafter.

The few incidents on record concerning the kings of Kent, from the time of Ethelbert till Egbert king of Wessex dissolved the monarchy, are not worthy of particular mention.

THE KINGDOM OF SUSSEX.

Upemod-Sussex-cottode the next.

THIS kingdom was the smallest in the Heptarchy; and of its history little is left on record. Ella, the founder, left the crown to his son Cissa, who is chiefly remarkable for the extent of his reign—seventy-six years. During his sovereignty, the south Saxons fell under the power of the king of Wessex, and thereafter the princes of this kingdom possessed only the insignia of authority. The west Saxons at length annexed it to their territory, as a preliminary step to acquiring the sole monarchy of England.

THE KINGDOM OF WESSEX.

Sempedo-Wessex-iardo came on.

THIS kingdom, into which all the other Saxon principalities ultimately merged, was founded by Cerdic and his son Kenric; yet not without considerable resistance on the part of the Britons. Its history presents a scene of turbulence and disquietude; the natural consequence of a country being divided into petty governments; and nothing of great interest occurs in its records till the time of Egbert, under whom all the kingdoms of the Heptarchy were united.

This prince resided, during his youth, in France; and he there acquired accomplishments and an extent of knowledge, that qualified him for the important station he was destined to fill. On the death of Brithric, he was called to ascend the throne of Wessex; and his first expedition was against the Britons of Cornwall, whom he defeated in several engagements. He was recalled from this conquest by an invasion of the Mercians upon his dominions. Egbert led out his army against them and obtained a victory, which gave a decisive blow to the power of his enemies. The kingdom of Essex was shortly after conquered with equal facility; and the East Angles voluntarily submitted, and craved the protection of Egbert. Thus, one after the other, the several kingdoms of the Heptarchy yielded before him; and on the dissolution of a separate government in Northumberland, he assumed the elevated station of king of all England.

THE KINGDOM OF THE EAST ANGLES.

Desers-East Angles-ropade, anon.

THIS kingdom was founded by Uffa, whose descendant, Earpwold, was converted to the Christian faith, through the persuasions of Edwin, king of Northumberland. Afterwards, however, at the solicitation of his wife, who was an idolator, he relapsed into paganism. Of the line of princes that reigned in this kingdom, nothing need be recorded beyond their murdering or expelling each other successively, to obtain the throne. The last of these, Ethelbert, was put to death by Offa, king of the Mercians, who united the East Angles with his own possessions.

THE KINGDOM OF NORTHUMBERLAND.

Surdo-Northumberland-divar they fix.

THE kingdom of Northumberland comprised all the counties north of the Humber, and was founded by Adelfred. This prince expelled Edwin, the infant brother of his wife, from his dominions; and he, after having grown to manhood, took refuge with the king of the East Angles. The latter, as the only means of securing himself and Edwin against the designs of Adelfred, entered Northumberland with a powerful army. In a battle between the two powers, Adelfred was slain, and Edwin obtained possession of this kingdom. Edwin was the most accomplished prince of the Heptarchy at that time, and greatly distinguished himself by the strict administration of justice. *He restrained the licentious habits of the people to*

such a degree, that during his reign "a woman or child might openly carry everywhere a purse of gold, without any danger of violence or robbery." An affecting instance of attachment to his person is recorded: an assassin, employed by the king of Wessex, having obtained an audience of Edwin, under pretence of delivering a message, drew his dagger and would have stabbed the king; when Lilla, an officer in Edwin's army, interposed his own body between his master and the assassin, and received the dagger in his heart.

Edwin, co-operating with the bishop of Paullinus, aided considerably the progress of Christianity in his dominions, and recommended it by his own example. This prince fell in battle against the Mercians; and after his death the kingdom of Northumberland was dismembered. The violent domination of succeeding monarchs, rendered the Northumbrians careless of maintaining their independence; and they ultimately submitted to the power of Egbert.

THE KINGDOM OF MERCIA.

Siudo-Mercia-idan makes six.

THE kingdom of Mercia, founded by Crida, comprehended all the middle counties of England; and was the largest, if not the most powerful of the Heptarchal states. Penda, a prince who succeeded to the throne when fifty years of age, was slain in battle by the king of Northumberland. To him succeeded his son Peada, whose princess converted her husband and his subjects to the Christian religion; and it is a singular fact, that the adoption of Christianity in all

the kingdoms of the Heptarchy, was effected by womanly persuasion and female zeal. Offa, a subsequent monarch, possessed of many qualifications for sovereign sway, tarnished his glories by the murder of Ethelbert, King of the East Angles. He afterwards endeavoured to re-establish his character, and appease the remorse of his conscience by liberal donations to the Church, and the performance of a pilgrimage to the papal see. This prince acquired at length, such a degree of weight and importance, that the emperor Charlemagne entered into an alliance with him, and honoured him with his friendship. After the lapse of a few uninteresting reigns, the kingdom of Mercia, in common with the other principalities of the Heptarchy, surrendered its independence into the hands of Egbert.

THE KINGDOM OF ESSEX.

Sarode-Essex-dimoti alone.

OF the kingdom of Essex, founded by Enkinwin, scarcely any historical details are preserved. An incident is mentioned in connexion with its joint sovereigns, Sexted and Seward, which indicates the rude mode of living in those days. The princes expressed desire to eat the white bread distributed by the bishop Mellitus at the communion: this was refused them, unless they would renounce the errors of Paganism and adopt Christianity. Irritated by the refusal, the princes expelled the prelate from their dominions. Essex afterwards fell into the hands of the Mercians, owing to a failure of issue in the royal line. Its independence of the Mercian govern-

ment had been effected, before the victorious Egbert reduced it to final submission, and annexed it to his possessions. From the passing glance which has been taken of the affairs of the Heptarchy, we gather these facts. The several kingdoms were successively founded by different bodies of Saxons, each under the command of their chief, who was the first monarch in the newly established state. The contiguity of the kingdoms, and the restless and turbulent spirit of the princes, caused a ceaseless war throughout the country; and the imperfect annals of that period are little more than a detail of revolting barbarities and abhorrent treachery. The introduction of Christianity did not, perhaps, greatly improve the habits and dispositions of the early Saxons. The papal authorities were obliged to yield, in some measure, to popular prejudices and superstitions, whilst they laboured to undermine and destroy the idolatry which prevailed, and the indulgences of the Church offered an easy means for the atonement of the worst crimes. The history of the Heptarchal sovereigns presents, therefore, on the one hand a picture of outrage and cruelty, and on the other, a scene of wretched superstition; either of them sufficiently revolting in itself, but still more so when viewed in connexion with the other.

THE INTRODUCTION OF CHRISTIANITY.

The true faith-compass reached the shore,
Augustine-ship after bore.

THE Apostles and early Fathers of the Christian Church, suffered much persecution at Rome. From the first entry of the Apostles into that city, until the

time of Constantine, "the heathen had raged together" to destroy the religion of the cross. This emperor, however, openly avowed Christianity, and established it so firmly, that the revolution of succeeding ages has not been able to shake it. The title of Pope was at first common to all bishops; but the emperor Phocas, who flourished nearly three centuries after Constantine, confined it to the bishops of Rome, and acknowledged their supremacy. After this the popes became temporal princes; they asserted their independence, took possession of the city of Rome and its territories, and finally supported their power with a numerous army. The primitive purity of Christianity was soon lost in this union of religion with temporal grandeur. The pure precepts of the Gospel gave way to political tenets and imposing ceremonies. The people were kept in ignorance, and encouraged in superstition; and their spiritual guides sought only to wrap the simple truths of Christianity in an impenetrable veil; and, by working on its fears, to obtain a complete ascendancy over the human mind. The Christian faith, it has been already noticed, obtained an introduction into Britain about sixty years after the birth of Christ. It gained little ground, however, during the lapse of several centuries, owing to the zeal with which men cling to ancient establishments and national prejudices: and though in the later years of the Heptarchy, Christianity had numbered many converts amongst the Britons; the latter were not disposed to communicate their knowledge of its influence to the Saxons; the general conversion of the island, therefore, still remained to be effected.

Circumstances, apparently trivial, have frequently led to great results; and the mission of Augustine to

this country, originated in the following ordinary occurrence. Gregory, surnamed the Great, then supreme Pontiff of Rome, happening one day to pass through the slave market, observed a number of children exposed for sale. Struck with their beauty, he inquired whence they came, and to whom they belonged; being told that they were *Angles*, he is said to have replied that they would not be Angles but angels, were they but Christians. And when told that the Saxon province whence they had been brought was under the government of Ella, or Alla, he answered—Alleluia to God should be sung in that country. Deeply affected by the spiritual ignorance of the Saxons, Gregory thenceforward revolved the means of converting them to Christianity. He at first determined on visiting this country in person, but the remonstrances of the Romans, by whom he was much beloved, diverted him from his purpose; he therefore fixed upon the monk Augustine as his messenger to the Pagans, and having selected him forty associates, straight dispatched him on the important errand. Augustine landed in Kent, and presented himself before Ethelbert, king of that country. The latter, though in some measure disposed to favour the Christian faith, through the persuasions of his princess, hesitated to receive the missionary, fearful lest the stranger might work against him by spells and enchantments. Taking the precaution to receive Augustine in the open air, where it was believed the powers of magic were ineffectual, he listened to the monk while he explained the object of his coming, and the doctrines of that faith he had been sent to propagate. Ethelbert did not immediately yield himself to a belief so strangely at variance with Pagan doctrines; yet he gave a

favourable reception to the monk, and supplied him freely with all necessaries. Thus encouraged, Augustine proceeded with increased zeal to preach the Gospel; and vast numbers heard his teachings, and received from him the rite of baptism.

The papal see acted with wary policy in all its endeavours to establish Christianity. Augustine was directed to remove the idols from the heathen altars, but not to destroy the altars themselves; as the Saxons would be more readily allured to the new form of worship, when they witnessed its celebration in the very places which they were accustomed to enter with reverence. The Saxons had usually feasted with their priests on the sacrificial offerings, and the missionary was therefore instructed to admit, on Christian festivals, the killing of cattle in the neighbourhood of the sacred edifices, that at such times the people might have free enjoyment of their ordinary indulgence.

Augustine was consecrated archbishop of Canterbury by the Pontiff; and an old pagan temple in the vicinity was converted into a monastery, and became the first building in this island dedicated to the Christian religion. Thenceforward the true faith made rapid progress, and the spiritual government of the country was subjected to papal authority.

EGBERT, FIRST KING OF ENGLAND.

Then *diaro-Egbert* unites them in one.

EGBERT having effected the union of the Heptarchal Kingdoms, endeavoured to cement the interests of his country, and render it more formidable to an invading

enemy than it had been while separated into a number of small provinces. An universality of language, laws, and institutions, prevailed throughout the island, and the people willingly pledged allegiance to a sovereign whose merits and qualifications so well fitted him to govern. The prospect of future tranquillity was freely indulged, and the whole nation joyfully contemplated the unmolested possession of their territories. These flattering appearances, however, were overcast by the appearance of the Danes on the English coast; who, during several centuries, harassed the country at intervals, and eventually obtained possession of the government.

THE DANES.

THE inhabitants of Scandinavia (Norway and Sweden) were rude, fierce, and martial. Strangers to art and industry, they subsisted by hunting, pasturage and plunder. Neglecting agriculture, their uncultivated territories soon became overstocked, and colonies issued forth from time to time under chieftains or generals, which at last almost deluged every part of Europe. A horde of these barbarians, who, in their migrations, occasionally bore the appellations of Cimbri, Goths, Lombards, Normans, and Danes, were the next to disturb the peace of England. These northern adventurers, issuing from the woods and mountains of Scandinavia, after having harassed the coasts of France with their robberies and piracies, under the name of Normans, from their northern situation, extended their ravages to Britain, where they were known by the general name of Danes. Their first attempts on the country were unsuccessful, but in the reign of

Egbert they effected a powerful landing in the isle of Sheppey, and carried off a considerable booty with impunity. Their inroads were attended with acts of the grossest barbarism and cruelty; destroying the monasteries, pillaging the churches, burning the libraries, and putting to the sword all who opposed them, respecting neither sex nor age.

The first general encounter between the Saxons and Danes, in the reign of Egbert, took place at Charmouth, in Dorsetshire, where, after an obstinate engagement, the latter were defeated; yet they maintained their post with sufficient management to effect a retreat to their ships. Having learned by experience that they must expect a vigorous resistance from Egbert, the Danes formed an alliance with the disaffected Britons of Cornwall; they and their confederates, however, suffered a signal defeat. Unfortunately for the peace of the kingdom, Egbert shortly afterwards died, leaving the government to his son Ethelwolf.

KINGS FROM EGBERT TO ALFRED.

Ethelwolf-edinil succeeds to the throne,
Ethelbald-isorde, each reigning alone;
Ethelbert and *Etheldred-ictoled* stand,
 Then *Alfred-irade* the joy of the land.

ETHELWOLF, SON OF EGBERT.

Ethelwolf-edinil succeeds to the throne.

THIS prince possessed neither the abilities nor the energy of his father; and from his previous habits, was better fitted for the management of a convent, than for the government of a kingdom. Immediately on his accession, he made a partition of the country in favour of his eldest son Athelstan; assigning the latter, the newly acquired provinces of Essex, Kent, and Sussex. Any evils which might have arisen from this injudicious separation, were prevented by the continual terror that prevailed on account of the Danish incursions. These invaders adopted a mode of warfare best calculated to secure their own success, and weary their adversaries. They studiously avoided coming to a general engagement, but scattered themselves in all directions through the maritime towns, and effecting their purposes of plunder and devastation in as short a time as possible, retreated to their vessels and put out to sea again. The whole country was consequently held in continual alarm. The descent

of these pirates was so sudden, and their points of attack so various, that one part of the country dared not advance to the defence of another, lest meanwhile the enemy should advance into their own neighbourhood, and their families and property be exposed unprotected to the ravages of the barbarians. The incursions of the Danes were continued year after year without intermission; and though many signal victories were obtained over them, whenever they could be brought to a general engagement, they succeeded in establishing themselves in the isle of Thanet.

The disturbed state of his kingdom hindered not Ethelwolf from undertaking a pilgrimage to Rome, whither he carried his favourite son Alfred, then only six years of age. He remained at the papal court during a whole year, and recommended himself to the pope and clergy by the munificence of his donations to the church. On his return he found his second son Ethelbald (the eldest, Athelstan, having died in his absence) concerting means for wresting the government to himself. A compromise was effected between them by a partition of the kingdom, the sovereignty of the western part being assigned to Ethelbald.

The extortions of the clergy during this reign were excessive. They discovered that under the Mosaic dispensation, a tenth part of the produce of the land was allotted to the priesthood; and in contradiction of their own declaration that the moral part of that law only was obligatory on Christians, they claimed by divine right this sacrificial donation. Not content with this, they afterwards proceeded to draw a like portion from the sale of merchandise, the wages of labourers, and even the guilty earnings of

professed courtezans. Ethelwolf confirmed the rights of the church to these oppressive and shameless demands; and the people, blinded by ignorance and superstition, considered a compliance with the exaction a meritorious concession.

ETHELBALD, SECOND SON OF ETHELWOLF.

Ethelbald-isorde, each reigning alone.

ON the death of Ethelwolf, Ethelbald succeeded to the throne. The few historical notices on record concerning this prince, cover his memory with infamy. He lived in a state of incest with his step-mother, and was with difficulty prevailed upon to separate himself from her. His reign was of short continuance, but crowded with vices and enormities.

ETHELBERT AND ETHELRED,

THIRD AND FOURTH SONS OF ETHELWOLF.

Ethelbert and Ethelred-icetoled stand.

ETHELBERT, who, during the life of Ethelbald, enjoyed only a nominal government of the eastern parts of the kingdom, left him by his father's will, succeeded, on the death of his brother to the possession of the whole kingdom. He appears to have admitted Ethelred to a share of authority. During a brief reign of five years, he behaved himself in a manner worthy of his birth and station. The kingdom, however, was still infested by the Danes, who continued to maintain possession of their settlement in the isle of Thanet. On the death of Ethelbert, the entire government devolved on Ethelred.

The reign of Ethelred is distinguished by no event of importance beyond the continued incursions of the Danes. Their first landing, in the time of this prince, was among the East Angles, who purchased a temporary security by furnishing the invaders with assistance in their attempts against Northumberland. Encouraged by success, the Danes next entered Mercia, and took up their winter quarters at Nottingham. Ethelred, assisted by his brother Alfred, conducted a numerous army thither, and obliged the enemy to retreat into Northumberland, whence they afterwards descended amongst the East Angles, committing the most cruel barbarities, and destroying all the religious houses which lay in their route.

The next station of the Danes was at Reading, whence they infested the country by their incursions. The Mercians, being desirous of shaking off the government of Ethelred, refused to join his army; the latter was therefore obliged to take the field with the West Saxons. Various success attended the Saxon arms; and any superiority they obtained was owing in a good measure to the skill and intrepidity of Alfred. Ethelred, no long time after, received his death wound in battle, and left to his brother the inheritance of a kingdom, apparently in the last stage of ruin.

ALFRED, YOUNGEST SON OF ETHELWOLF.

Alfred-irade the joy of the land.

Nothing could be more deplorable than the condition of this country on the accession of Alfred. The Danes were in possession of the principal places in the kingdom; the Mercians had cast off their

allegiance; the dependence on the other provinces was extremely precarious; the churches and monasteries had been levelled with the ground; and the land lay uncultivated through fear of fresh incursions. In this situation of affairs, the wisdom and virtues of one man were found sufficient to restore order and tranquillity.

Alfred had given early indications of great virtues and splendid talents. After his return from Rome with Ethelwolf, he was again sent thither by his father, and was formally anointed future king of England by pope Leo III. Arriving once more in his native country, Alfred daily increased in the estimation of his royal parent; but, to such an indiscreet length were his youthful pleasures allowed to extend, that on reaching his twelfth year, he still remained ignorant of the lowest elements of literature. His genius was first excited by the recital of Saxon poems, in which the queen, his mother, took great delight; and, encouraged by his parent, and stimulated by his own ardent inclinations, he soon learned to read these compositions. Thence he proceeded to acquire a knowledge of the Latin tongue; and with wonderful facility obtained familiar acquaintance with the liberal learning of the age.

Scarcely had Alfred succeeded to the throne, when he was obliged to take the field against the Danes, who had seized Wilton, and were ravaging the surrounding country. Assembling a few troops, he advanced rapidly against the enemy, and gained some advantage over them; but by pursuing his victory too far, the Danes availed themselves of their numbers, and recovered the day. Their loss in this contest was, however, so great, that they stipulated with Alfred for a safe retreat, and promised to depart the kingdom.

How little dependence Alfred could place on the treaties and protestations of these invaders was shortly evidenced by their turning back upon Mercia, and obliging the governor of that province to abandon his country, and take refuge in a cloister at Rome.

The West Saxons were now the only power in England that remained at Alfred's disposal; and even his zeal and abilities were insufficient to support them against the numbers of the Danes. A new swarm of these barbarians came over, and located themselves in the county of Dorset, the very centre of Alfred's dominions. The latter succeeded in once more bringing them to a treaty, which they violated so soon as opportunity offered; and fresh arrivals of their countrymen affording them full security, they now set no bounds to their ravages.

The dispirited Saxons yielded themselves to despair: some fled into the fastnesses of Wales, others sought refuge beyond the sea, while many submitted themselves to the enemy. Vainly did Alfred endeavour to summon them to make one more effort in defence of their liberties: no one hearkened to his exhortations; and even the king himself was obliged to relinquish the ensigns of his dignity, to dismiss his followers, and in humble guise to seek concealment in the rude dwelling of a neat-herd. During his sojourn in this retreat, an incident occurred, long preserved by popular tradition, and which has been recorded by all historians. The wife of the neat-herd, who was ignorant of the quality of her guest, on one occasion left him in charge of some oaten cakes, that were baking on the hearth. Alfred, whose thoughts were engaged on things of higher interest, neglected the injunctions given; and the good woman on her

return found the cakes burned to a cinder: for this delinquency she severely upbraided the king, telling him, that she always found him ready to partake of her cakes, though he was so negligent in attending to them.

Previously to entering this retirement, Alfred had concerted measures for assembling some trusty friends, whenever opportunity presented itself, for annoying the enemy. Taking refuge in the forest of Somerset, this faithful band succeeded in augmenting their numbers, and at length repaired to their monarch, whom they found reduced by famine to the last extremities. The Danes meanwhile had carried terror over the whole land; but having been resisted with some success by the Earl of Devonshire, Alfred took advantage of the circumstance to rouse up the spirits of the Saxons to a vigorous defence. He apprised them of the place of his retreat, and summoned them to be ready at a minute's warning; but none was found who would undertake to reconnoitre the force and position of the enemy. Alfred, therefore, in the disguise of a harper, repaired to the Danish camp, and even obtained admittance to the presence of Guthrum, the chief. Having made his observations, he returned to his followers, and concerted measures for attacking the enemy.

The rising of the Saxons, struck the Danes with consternation. Their resistance was feeble, and a prodigious slaughter of their forces took place. Some fled for refuge to a fortified camp, but being unprovided for a siege, they were obliged to surrender at discretion. Alfred permitted such as refused to embrace Christianity, to embark for Flanders; and Guthrum, the Danish prince, with thirty of his nobles,

were baptized, the king himself answering for the former at the font.

Alfred had now attained the meridian of glory; his territories were more extensive than those of his predecessors; the kings of Wales did homage to him for their possessions, the Northumbrians received a king of his appointing, and no enemy appeared to disturb the tranquillity of his kingdom. To secure the country from future invasion, Alfred repaired the fortifications, and rebuilt the cities that had been destroyed by the Danes, and zealously cultivated all the arts of peace. His naval power he increased to a hundred and twenty ships, and caused his subjects to be instructed in navigation and the principles of maritime warfare. Some attempts were made by the Danes to recover their position in England, but with no success.

To render the execution of justice strict and regular, Alfred divided his kingdom into counties, hundreds, and tithings. Every householder was made answerable for the conduct of all under his roof. Ten neighbouring householders were formed into one corporation, over whom a *headbourg*, or headborough, presided, and were answerable for each others behaviour. Any man who did not register himself in some tithing, was esteemed an outlaw; and no man could change his residence without a warrant from the headbourg of the corporation to which he belonged. Civil cases could be referred to several intermediate tribunals, but from each of these there lay, in default of justice, a direct appeal to the king in council. To assist the administration of justice, Alfred formed a code of laws, which is generally considered to be the basis of our common law. So efficient were the legal institutions of the country, that, it is said, Alfred

caused bracelets of gold to be suspended in the high-ways, and no man dared to touch them. A memorable sentiment in the will of this prince deserves to be recorded: *That it was just the English should for ever remain as free as their own thoughts.* To remove the ignorance that overspread the land, Alfred invited over from the continent the most learned men of the age, and founded, or at least re-established, the university of Oxford.

The character of the great Alfred has been a theme of admiration with all historians; and every virtue that adorns humanity has been ascribed to him. As a man he must have had some frailties, the common inheritance of his race; and perhaps it had been better to throw the cloud of some few errors over the sun of his fame, than to leave for future and degenerate times only the contemplation of his unmingled glories.

The wise regulations and liberal institutions of Alfred had considerably humanized and refined his subjects. His exertions for the establishment of literature, the excellent laws he had formed, and the encouragement he had given to commerce and navigation, all contributed very powerfully to remove that cloud of barbarism which darkened the land. But at his death the kingdom relapsed into its former state. The restlessness of the Danes would not suffer them to remain long in a state of peace. They recommenced their barbarous warfare, and fully employed the successors of Alfred in repressing their invasions, leaving them no time to proceed in the work of refinement which he had begun. Indeed they were unable to preserve things as they were, for the Danes ceased not from this time to harass the English, till Sweyn, their king, had made a conquest of the country.

KINGS FROM ALFRED TO WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

Edward-potemod, when Alfred was gone,
And *Dopas-Athelstan* by turns filled the throne.
Next *Edmund-dopumo* the active and brave,
And *Edred-dolepuc* the church-ridden slave.
After him *Edwy-pessod* the government bore,
Then *Edgar-pespedo* the diadem wore.
When *Edward the martyr-perosed* pass'd by,
Poredop-Ethelred was seated on high:
Ironside Edmund-metomcod did reign,
And then came *Canute-metemordo*, the Dane.
Harold-metendos arose in his place,
Hardic'nute-metenepod the last of his race.
Next *Edward-motuped*, the Saint, 'gan his reign,
Then *Harold-metoccod* who fell 'midst the slain.

EDWARD THE ELDER, SECOND SON OF ALFRED.

Edward-potemod, when Alfred was gone.

SCARCELY was Edward seated on the throne, when he was opposed by his cousin Ethelwald, who had raised a powerful body in Northumberland to favour his pretensions. The latter connected his interests with the Danish tribes, and collected vast numbers of

these freebooters, whose hopes he excited by prospects of plunder. The Danes who had been allowed a settlement in the country by Alfred, joined themselves also to his standard, and the Saxons quickly found themselves menaced with those internal convulsions, from which the valour and prudence of the late king had rescued them. Edward vigorously opposed this combination against him; and the death of Ethelwald in battle, freed him from a dangerous competitor, and gave a check to the renewed ravages of the Danes.

Having made peace on advantageous terms with the East Angles, Edward turned his attention to the conquest of the Northumbrians, and so far reduced their power, that they were never afterwards able to obtain the advantage over him. After restoring the whole kingdom to tranquillity, this monarch was prevented by death from completing his designs for the welfare and happiness of his people.

ATHELSTAN, NATURAL SON OF EDWARD THE ELDER.

And *Dopas-Athelstan* by turns filled the throne.

THE illegitimacy of Athelstan was not considered an obstacle to his inheriting the throne; and as the lawful issue of the late king were of tender years, he was deemed the most proper person to take the government of the kingdom. A kinsman, named Alfred, disturbed the opening of his reign, by a conspiracy in favour of the young princes; but when arrested on suspicion of treasonable designs, he denied any knowledge of the transaction, and offered to justify himself by an oath of his innocence in the presence of the pope. The king accepted this condition; but scarcely had

Alfred pronounced the oath, when (according to the credulous historians of those times) he was seized with convulsions that terminated in his death. The Northumbrian Danes excited some disturbance, but were quickly put down; and Constantine, king of Scotland, who had rendered them assistance, was reduced to submission. The Scots, and some of the Welsh princes, uniting with a body of Danes, entered into a conspiracy against Athelstan; but in a battle at Brunsburg, in Northumberland, they were utterly defeated, and several of the Welsh governors subjected to do homage for their principalities. Thenceforward, Athelstan continued to reign in tranquillity; and he is regarded as one of the ablest and most active princes of the Saxon dynasty. During this reign the bible was first translated into the vulgar tongue. To Athelstan succeeded his legitimate brother, Edmund.

EDMUND, SON OF EDWARD THE ELDER.

THE commencement of this reign was disturbed by the restless Northumbrians; but by marching his forces suddenly into their country, Edmund so overawed them, that they submitted entirely to his will. The great object to which this monarch devoted himself, was to restrain the licentious habits of the people; and for this end he instituted capital punishments, considering the ordinary enactments insufficient to prevent the commission of enormous crimes. As fines and pecuniary mulcts had hitherto been the only penalties enforced, the laws of Edmund were deemed sanguinary and severe; and the resentment which the desperadoes of that age bore to him in consequence, *ultimately* issued in the death of the king. One day

whilst solemnizing a festival in the county of Gloucester, Edmund remarked that a notorious robber, named Leolf, whom he had banished from the kingdom, had intruded himself into the presence. The king ordered him to leave the room, and on his refusal, Edmund seized him by the hair, intending to drag him forth. Thus reduced to extremity, the ruffian drew his dagger, and struck the king a mortal wound, of which he immediately expired. The assassin was instantly despatched by the attendants; but his death afforded no compensation for the loss of a monarch so universally beloved and respected by his subjects. The male branches of Edmund's family being too young to govern, he was succeeded on the throne by his brother Edred.

EDRED, SON OF EDWARD THE ELDER.

And *Edred-dolepuc*, the church-ridden slave.

THE accession of a new king, appeared to the Northumbrian Danes a favourable opportunity for relieving themselves from the Saxon yoke, but, on Edred's appearance with an army, they instantly made submission to him. To curb their restless spirit, he afterwards found it necessary to establish English garrisons in all their considerable towns; and he obliged Malcolm, king of Scotland, their ally, to sue for peace, and renew his homage.

Edred had devoted himself to the most bigoted superstition; and in consequence, the ecclesiastical power swayed him at will. He had blindly delivered himself over to the guidance of a monk named Dunstan, abbot of Glastonbury, whom he advanced to the

highest offices: This churchman, taking advantage of the king's confidence, imported into the country a new order of monks, called Benedictines, whose object was to establish celibacy among the clergy, and thus to separate them as it were from the world and lay a sure foundation for the absolute domination of the papal see. The people had been accustomed to regard inviolable chastity as the summit of perfection, and the progress of the monks was consequently considerable; but the death of Edred, their zealous partizan, retarded the advancement of the new doctrine.

EDWY, SON OF EDMUND.

After him *Edwy-possed* the government bore.

THE sons of Edred being in a state of infancy, the crown devolved on Edwy, his nephew, son of king Edmund. Edwy was possessed of great talents and many virtues, and would probably have been a popular sovereign had he not, in the commencement of his reign, engaged in a controversy with the monks, whose rage he could never afterwards mitigate, and who rendered his brief reign a scene of turbulence and cruel suffering. Shortly after his accession Edwy, fixed his affections on a princess of the blood royal, named Elgiva, and in opposition to the remonstrances of Dunstan and other ecclesiastics, he ventured to espouse her, though she was within the degrees of affinity prohibited by the canon law. The violent conduct of the monks on this occasion determined Edwy not to second their views by expelling the secular clergy from the religious houses. War was therefore declared between the king and the monks; and the

former soon had occasion to repent his temerity in provoking their wrath. On the day of his coronation, silently withdrawing himself from the noisy festivities of the banquet, he sought the apartment of his wife, and there, in company with his queen and her mother, indulged the soft emotions of the heart. Dunstan no sooner perceived his absence, than, conjecturing the reason, he rushed into the room where the king was sitting, and loudly reviling him, dragged him back to the banquet hall. Edwy retaliated on Dunstan for this insult, by demanding from him an account of the disbursements from the royal treasury, during the former reign; and when the monk refused compliance, Edwy banished him the kingdom. The people, however, whose minds were swayed by the superstitious of the age, regarded Dunstan as a martyr. Odo, archbishop of Canterbury, revenged the disgrace of Dunstan, by sending a party of soldiers to the palace, with orders to seize the queen, to brand her face with hot irons, and afterwards to convey her by force into Ireland, there to remain in perpetual exile. Edwy, finding it useless to resist, consented to be divorced from Elgiva; but a dreadful catastrophe awaited that unfortunate lady. Having obliterated the scars from her cheeks, she returned to England, and was flying to the embraces of her husband, when she fell into the hands of a party, whom the primate had sent to intercept her. Her death alone was deemed insufficient, and the most horrible tortures were called into requisition to satiate the revenge of the monks. The sinews of her legs being cut, and her body mangled, she was left to expire in cruel torments.

At this time Dunstan returned to England, and took upon himself the government of a party, formed

for the purpose of transferring the crown from Edwy, to his younger brother, Edgar. The entry of this violent prelate into the kingdom, was hailed by the ignorant multitude with raptures. Edwy, deserted by his subjects, and placed under the ban of the church, consented to a partition of the kingdom; but his death, which took place shortly after, put a period to his afflictions, and gave Edgar undisputed possession of the whole government.

EDGAR, YOUNGER SON OF EDMUND.

Then *Edgar-pespedo* the diadem wore.

THE reign of Edgar is the most fortunate to be met with in the ancient history of England. By conforming entirely to the will of the monks, and paying especial court to Dunstan, he preserved peace throughout his dominions; and his judicious naval and military preparations deterred any enemy from invading his kingdom. The deference with which Edgar regarded the church, was sufficient in the eyes of the monks to atone for all his irregularities. The licentious tenor of his conduct may however be gathered from the records of his reign. At one time he is said to have forcibly entered a convent, and carried off one of the nuns by force. This act of sacrilege was visited by the displeasure of the church; yet, perhaps, rather with a view to save appearances, than to restrain the monarch in his vicious courses.

The circumstances of his marriage with Elfrida, were even more criminal. This lady was the daughter and heiress of Olgar, Earl of Devonshire: and, though *educated in the country*, she had never yet appeared

at the court. The reputation of her beauty and fortune had filled all England; and Edgar himself found his curiosity excited by the frequent repetition of her praises. He therefore despatched Athelwold, his favourite, to the residence of her father, that he might verify the general account given of her beauty and accomplishments. Athelwold had scarcely been introduced to Elfrida, when he found himself the victim of a passion he could not hope to subdue. Returning to the king his master, he reported that the great wealth of the lady had been the only ground of the admiration paid her. The king being thus diverted from his purpose, Athelwold shortly after took occasion to observe, that though the wealth of Elfrida was of small consequence to a king, it would be a great acquisition to a subject, and concluded by soliciting the king's permission to espouse her. Edgar gave his consent: and as the favourite of a monarch was not likely to meet refusal in his suit, the nuptials were quickly consummated. Edgar at length obtained information of the deceit that had been practised towards him, and without leading Athelwold to suspect his design, told the latter that he intended to pay a visit to his castle, and be introduced to his wife, of whom he had formerly heard so much. Athelwold, much disconcerted at the proposal, requested that he might go before the king a few hours to arrange for his reception. Arriving at his castle, Athelwold threw himself at the feet of his wife, confessing what he had done to be possessed of her charms, and begging her to conceal as much as possible her beauty from the king. Elfrida, little beholden to him for a passion that had deprived her of a crown promised compliance; but, impelled by

vanity, decorated herself in such rich and becoming costume, that the king was smitten with her beauty at first sight. The monarch departed without exciting any suspicions in the mind of Athelwold; but, shortly after, the latter was discovered murdered in a wood, and Elfrida almost immediately received an invitation to court, and was publicly espoused by Edgar.

A remarkable incident connected with this reign, was the extirpation of the wolves from England. Edgar had caused them to be hunted; and when he found that they retired for safety to the mountains of Wales, he changed the payment of money imposed on the Welsh, into an annual tribute of three hundred heads of wolves.

EDWARD THE MARTYR, SON OF EDGAR.

When *Edward the Martyr* passed by.

THE succession of Edward, son of Edgar by his first marriage, was opposed by his step-mother Elfrida, who wished to obtain the sovereignty for her son Ethelred. The title of Edward was, however, supported by many advantages: he had been appointed to the government by the will of the deceased king, and the imperious temper of Elfrida was too much dreaded by the nobility for them to assist in transferring the crown to her son, well knowing that by doing so, they would invest her with absolute power. Above all, Dunstan espoused the cause of Edward, and to cut off all opposite pretensions, anointed and crowned him king at Kingston. The motive which actuated this churchman, was the placing on the throne a prince willing to favour his order, and Edward had given convincing proofs of his acquiescence to the will

of the church. Attempts were made in this reign to restrain the growing power of the ecclesiastics, but under the guidance of Dunstan, the monks succeeded by miraculous imposture, and pretended austerities, in establishing themselves in the favour of the people.

The reign of Edward is distinguished by no incident worthy of particular mention, excepting his tragical death. Though his step-mother had opposed his succession to the throne, he continued to regard her with much affection. One day, having been led by the chase into the neighbourhood of Corfe Castle, where Elfrida resided, he considered it his duty to visit her, though unattended by any of his retinue. After remounting his horse, he desired some liquor to be brought him; and whilst holding the cup to his head, one of Elfrida's domestics stabbed him in the back. Finding himself wounded, the king put spurs to his horse; but becoming faint through loss of blood, he fell from the saddle, and his foot remaining in the stirrup, he was dragged along by his horse till he expired. Elfrida afterwards endeavoured to atone this crime, by building and endowing monasteries, but she appears never to have regained the good opinion of the public; while the unfortunate Edward was regarded as a martyr, and miracles are said to have been wrought at his tomb.

ETHELRED THE SECOND, SON OF EDGAR AND
ELFRIDA.

Poredop-Ethelred was seated on high.

ENGLAND had enjoyed a freedom from the Danish incursions during several reigns, partly owing to the

warlike disposition of its princes, and partly from those marauders having been engaged in forming establishments in the north of France. Now, however, that they found a weak and irresolute monarch at the head of the government, they once more turned their attention to this country. Ethelred, instead of collecting the forces of his kingdom to repel the invaders, yielded to the advice of Siricius, archbishop of Canterbury, and bribed them in the sum of ten thousand pounds, to depart from his dominions. The consequence of this injudicious and pusillanimous proceeding, was such as might be expected; the Danes returned the following year in greater numbers, under the command of Sweyn, king of Denmark, and Olave, king of Norway. They ravaged the country, and committed the most horrible barbarities, till at length Ethelred offered tribute as the only means of relieving his country from their violence. Every fresh concession of this kind, served only to increase the insolence and rapacity of the enemy; and Ethelred determined, by an act of barbarous but short-sighted policy, to revenge himself for all the indignities they had offered him. Secret orders were given for a general massacre of the Danes on the festival of St. Brice; and this cruel expedient was carried into execution with such destructive effect, that in one day all the Danes in England, without respect to age, sex, or condition, were put to the sword.

While the English were congratulating themselves on their deliverance from the Danes, Sweyn, king of Denmark, appeared off the western coasts, with a large fleet, meditating slaughter, and furious with revenge. The English, sensible of the outrages they were likely *to suffer from these invaders, assembled in great*

numbers and with much resolution. At first they obtained relief from the devastating progress of the enemy, by payment of large sums of money; ultimately, however, they were under the necessity of transferring their allegiance to Sweyn, and Ethelred was obliged to seek an asylum at the court of Normandy.

On the decease of Sweyn, which took place in a short time after, Ethelred was recalled to the throne; but his death in the ensuing year, put a final period to his inglorious reign.

EDMUND, SON OF ETHELRED.

Ironside Edmund-metomcod did reign.

EDMUND, surnamed Ironside, on account of his hardy valour and intrepidity, found a formidable opponent in the person of Canute the Great, who had succeeded to the throne of Denmark on the demise of Sweyn. After a protracted contest, managed on both sides with great obstinacy and perseverance, the English and Danish nobility, who were equally harassed by these convulsions, obliged their kings to come to terms, and divide the government between them. Canute reserved for himself the northern portion, leaving the southern parts to Edmund; but the latter being murdered a short time after, by his two chamberlains at Oxford, the Danish monarch was left in peaceable possession of the whole kingdom.

THE DANISH MONARCHY IN ENGLAND.

CANUTE THE GREAT.

And then came *Canute-metemordo* the Dane.

CANUTE, having thus reached the highest point of his ambition, seems to have regulated his conduct by a system of enlightened policy, and he is regarded as one of the first characters in the barbarous age wherein he lived. In the opening of his reign he found it necessary to make many concessions to the nobility of his kingdom; and to gratify their avarice he levied severe exactions on the subordinate ranks of the people. Having strengthened his power by weakening all who had wealth or authority to withstand him, and by conferring benefits on his followers, he began to discover the merciful side of his character. To recommend himself to the English, he sent back all his Danish adherents that he could safely spare, and restored the Saxon manners. He expelled Olave from his dominions in Norway, and thus rendered himself at once king of England, Denmark, and Norway.

To atone for the violence which marked the early periods of his reign, Canute built and endowed monasteries, and even undertook a pilgrimage to Jerusalem; the latter act being in itself sufficient to establish his reputation for piety. The most disgusting flattery was offered him by his courtiers, who affected to believe that all things were obedient to his command. He is said to have taken the following method for reproving them.

Commanding his chair to be placed on the sea-shore, while the tide was coming in, he ordered the waves to retire. He feigned to sit some time in expectation that his mandate would be obeyed, till the sea had approached the chair on which he sat. Then, turning to his courtiers, he observed, that the titles of Lord and Master were applicable to Him only whom earth and seas were ready to obey, and who could say to the ocean, *Thus far shalt thou go and no further.*

Canute lived many years respected for his virtues; and at length died at Shaftesbury, in the nineteenth year of his reign, leaving three sons, Sweyn, Harold, and Hardicanute, of whom the second succeeded his father on the English throne.

HAROLD I. SON OF CANUTE.

Harold-metendos arose in his place.

HAROLD, surnamed Harefoot from his swiftness in running, met with considerable opposition from his younger brother, Hardicanute. A compromise was, however, effected between them, through the intervention of the nobility, by which it was agreed that the former should enjoy London, with all the provinces north of the Thames, and that the possession of the south should be given to Hardicanute. Nothing of interest is recorded concerning Harold, beyond an act of treachery and cruelty to his step-brothers, Edward and Alfred, sons of the Saxon king Ethelred, and whose mother Canute had espoused. Alfred was murdered by his orders in the most cruel manner; the other prince, with his mother, escaped to the continent. A few years terminated the reign of

this monarch: he died, little esteemed or regretted by his subjects, and left the succession to his brother Hardicanute.

HARDICANUTE, SON OF CANUTE.

Hardic'nute-metenepod, the last of his race.

THE first act of Hardicanute's government afforded his subjects a bad omen of his future conduct. Pretending to be greatly enraged on account of Harold's cruelty to prince Alfred, he caused the body of the deceased king to be disinterred and cast into the Thames. The body being found by some fishermen, was buried in London, when the king again caused it to be thrown into the river, whence it was privately taken, and buried with great secrecy. The indignation of the English was excited by the renewal of the Danegelt, which tax was imposed by Hardicanute to reward the fleet which brought him from Denmark. Considerable opposition was made to the demand, and two of the collectors were killed, which so enraged the king that he gave orders for destroying the city and inhabitants of Worcester, at which place the tumult occurred. The city was fired; but the inhabitants were confined by the king's emissaries in a small island of the Severn, till the royal wrath had subsided. This tyrant died in consequence of excess at the marriage of a Danish lord; and his death so far from being regretted by the English, was made a subject of derision, and the anniversary of his decease was distinguished by the name of Hock Holiday.

SAXON LINE RESTORED.

EDWARD THE CONFESSOR, SON OF ETHELRED AND
EMMA.

Next *Edward-motuped*, the saint, 'gan his reign.

ON the death of Hardicanute the English shook off the Danish yoke, and as they had long groaned under a foreign yoke, they now set no bounds to their joy, at finding the line of their ancient monarchs restored; and at first the warmth of their rapture was attended with some violence against the Danes: but the new king, by the mildness of his character, soon composed these differences, and the distinctions between the two nations gradually disappeared. Thus, after a struggle of above two hundred years, all things seemed to remain in the same state in which those conflicts began. These invasions from the Danes produced no new change of laws, customs, language, or religion; nor did any other traces of their establishments seem to remain, except the castles they built, and the families that still bear their names.

Edward in some measure disgusted his subjects by an injudicious partiality to the Normans, among whom he had been educated. He was also an enthusiast in religion, and was therefore constantly engaged in the visions of superstition. His predilection for the Normans led him to appoint William Duke of Normandy, his cousin, to succeed him on the English throne. Edward built Westminster Abbey; formed

the Saxon laws and customs, which were afterwards the foundation of Magna Charta, into a regular code; and was the first monarch that touched for the king's evil. He married Editha, the daughter of Earl Godwin, a nobleman of Saxon descent, and suffered much disquietude from the intrigues of his father-in-law. It was in this reign that an expedition was sent out against Macbeth, who had murdered Duncan, king of Scotland, and usurped his throne.

This prince, who was revered by the monks, under the titles of Saint and Confessor, had but weak pretensions to either, being indolent, irresolute, and credulous. The tranquillity of his reign was owing rather to the weakness of his foreign enemies, than his own domestic strength. But, though he seemed to have few active virtues, yet he certainly had no vices of an atrocious kind: and the want of the passions, rather than their restraint, was then, as it has been long since, the best title to canonization. Previous to his death, his kinsman Harold, had succeeded in establishing himself in the good opinion of the people, and on the demise of the king, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and twenty-fifth of his reign, he was universally acknowledged as successor to the throne.

HAROLD II. SON OF EARL GODWIN.

Then *Harold-metoccod* who fell 'midst the slain.

HAROLD, whose intrigues and virtues seemed to give a right to his pretensions, ascended the throne without any opposition. The citizens of London, who were

ever fond of an elective monarchy, seconded his claims; the clergy adopted his cause; and the body of the people, whose friend he had been, sincerely loved him. Nor were the first acts of his reign unworthy of the general prejudice in his favour. He took the most effectual measures for an impartial administration of justice; ordered the laws to be revised and reformed; and those disturbers of the public peace to be punished, who had thriven under the lenity of the last reign.

But neither his valour, his justice, nor his popularity, were able to secure him from the misfortunes attendant upon an ill-grounded title. The first symptoms of his danger came from his own brother Tosti, who had taken refuge in Flanders, and went among the princes of the continent, endeavouring to engage them in a league against Harold, whom he represented as a tyrant and usurper.

Scarcely had Harold completed the overthrow of this disturber, when a more formidable enemy appeared in the person of William Duke of Normandy, who landed at Hastings, September 29, 1066, and laid claim to the English crown.

William, who was afterwards called the conqueror, was the natural son of Robert duke of Normandy. His mother's name was Arlette, a beautiful maid of Falaise, whom Robert fell in love with, as she stood gazing at the door whilst he passed through the town. William, who was the offspring of this amour, owed a part of his greatness to his birth, but still more to his own personal merit. His body was vigorous, his mind capacious and noble, and his courage not to be repressed by apparent danger.

He founded his claim to the sovereignty of

England, on a promise made to him by Edward the Confessor; and finding that Harold was not disposed to yield the sceptre, he prepared to assert his right by arms.

The day before the battle, which took place at Hastings, William sent an offer to Harold to decide the quarrel between them by single combat, and thus to spare the blood of thousands; but Harold refused, and said he would leave it to the God of armies to determine. Both armies, therefore, that night pitched in sight of each other, expecting the dawning of the next day with impatience. The English passed the night in songs and feasting; the Normans in devotion and prayer.

The next morning, at seven, as soon as day appeared, both armies were drawn up in array against each other. Harold appeared in the centre of his forces, leading his army on foot, that his men might be more encouraged by seeing their king exposed to an equality of danger. William fought on horseback, leading on his army, that moved at once, singing the song of Rowland, one of the famous chiefs of their country. The Normans began the fight with their cross-bows, which, at first, galled and surprised the English; and, as their ranks were close, their arrows did great execution. But soon they came to closer fight and the English, with their bills, hewed down their adversaries with great slaughter. Confusion was spreading among the ranks, when William, who found himself on the brink of destruction, hastened, with a select band, to the relief of his forces. His presence restored the suspense of battle; he was seen in every place endeavouring to pierce the ranks of the enemy, and had *three* horses slain under him. At length, perceiving

that the English line continued impenetrable; he pretended to give ground; which, as he expected, drew the enemy from their ranks; and he was instantly ready to take advantage of their disorder. Upon a signal given, the Normans readily returned to the charge with greater fury than before, broke the English troops, and pursued them to a rising ground. It was in this extremity that Harold was seen flying from rank to rank, rallying and inspiring his troops with vigour; and though he had toiled all day, till near night-fall, in front of his Kentish men, he still seemed unabated in force or courage, keeping his men to the post of honour. Once more, therefore, the victory seemed to turn against the Normans, and they fell in great numbers; so that the fierceness and obstinacy of this memorable battle were often renewed by the courage of the leaders, whenever that of the soldiers began to slacken. Fortune, at length, determined a victory that valour was unable to decide. Harold, making a furious onset at the head of his troops against the Norman heavy-armed infantry, was shot in the brain by an arrow; and his two valiant brothers, fighting by his side, shared the same fate. He fell with his sword in his hand, amidst heaps of slain; and, after the battle, the royal corpse could hardly be distinguished among the dead. From the moment of his death, all courage seemed to forsake the English; they gave ground on every side, and were pursued with great slaughter by the victorious Normans. Thus, after a battle, which was fought from morning to sun-set, the invaders proved successful, and the English crown became the reward of victory. There fell near fifteen thousand of the Normans, while the loss on the side of the vanquished was yet more considerable, beside that of the king

and his two brothers. The next day, the dead body of Harold was brought to William, and generously restored, without ransom, to his mother.

This was the end of the Saxon government in England, which had continued for more than six hundred years.

THE NORMANS.

INTRODUCTORY OBSERVATIONS.

WE have before observed that the Normans were a people of Scandinavia. A band of these rude warriors landed in France, under the command of Rollo, one of their most illustrious chieftains, and became so formidable in that country, that the French king gave his daughter in marriage to Rollo, and ceded to him a considerable division of the kingdom, including Normandy. From Rollo descended William the Conqueror.

MEMORIAL VERSES OF THE NORMAN KINGS.

The Conquerer flourished when Harold was slain,
William Rufus-metirod, next had his reign;
Henry-memettd when Rufus had yielded
 The sceptre of England, succeeded to wield it.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR, SON OF RICHARD DUKE OF NORMANDY.

The Conqueror flourished when Harold was slain.

NOTHING could exceed the consternation of the English upon the loss of the battle of Hastings. Very little seemed now remaining but a tame submission

to the victor; and William, sensible of their terror, was careful not to lose the fruits of victory by delay. Accordingly, after the pursuit of the flying enemy, and a short refreshment of his own army, he set forward on the completion of his design: and, sitting down before Dover, took it after a slight resistance, and fortified it with fresh redoubts. After a short delay at this place, he advanced by quick marches towards London, where his approach served to spread new confusion. The inhabitants for some time hesitated between their terrors and their loyalty; but casting their eyes on every side, they saw no person of valour or authority sufficient to support them in their independence. The clergy, who had a large share in the deliberations, declared openly for a prince whose pretensions were acknowledged, and whose arms were blessed, by the holy see. Nothing remained but to submit to the necessity of the times, and to acknowledge those claims which it was not in their power to oppose. William was glad of being thus peaceably put in possession of a throne, which several of his predecessors had not gained without repeated victories. He readily accepted the crown upon the terms that were offered him; which were, that he should govern according to the established customs of the country.

William, shortly after his accession, returned to the continent. During his absence his officers were very oppressive, and the English had determined to cut off their enemies in a general massacre, when the King's return disconcerted their schemes, and led to their discovery. The consequences of this conspiracy were, that William excluded the English from all preferments and honours, and confiscated their estates to his *own use*. This monarch caused the Doom's-day book

to be compiled, which, though only a revision of the survey made in the time of Alfred, is a document of infinite value to the kingdom, from the precision with which it defines the extent of hereditary property. He ordered the curfew bell to be rung nightly, as a signal for the extinguishing of all lights and fires. He created sheriffs, and appointed the four law terms; and introduced that abominable system of tyranny and subjection called the feudal law. His death was occasioned by his horse plunging, and throwing him forward on the pommel of the saddle. William was low in stature, but very strong; and the bow of the Conqueror, like that of Ulysses, acknowledged subjection to its master's hand alone.

William discovered an inclination to humanize his people by abolishing trials by *ordeal* and *campfight*. The ordeal trial, which had formerly been of pagan institution, and was still held in veneration by the Saxon Christians, was either by fire or water. It was used in criminal cases, where the suspicions were strong, but the proofs not evident. In that of fire, the person accused was brought into an open plain, and several red-hot ploughshares were placed at equal intervals before him; over these he was to walk blindfold; and, if he escaped unhurt, he was acquitted of the charge. In the trial by water, the person accused was thrown, bound hand and foot, into the water: if he sunk, he was declared innocent; if he swam he was executed, as being thus miraculously convicted. The trial by campfight was performed by single combat, in lists appointed for that purpose, between the accuser and the accused. He who, in such a case, came off victorious, was deemed innocent; and he who was conquered, if he survived his antagonist's resentment in

the field, was sure to suffer as a malefactor some time after. Both these trials William abolished, as unchristian and unjust; and he reduced all causes to the judgment of twelve men, of a rank nearly equal to that of the prisoner. This method of trial by jury was common to the Saxons, as well as the Normans, long before; but it was confirmed by him with all the sanction of undisputed authority.

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM AND CHIVALRY.

WHEN the northern nations had settled themselves in the countries of Europe, they overturned the Roman form of government and laws, which had till then existed, and introduced a new species of government, which is known by the name of the Feudal System. The chieftain who led the barbarians to conquest, divided amongst his chief officers the lands of the vanquished, binding those on whom they were bestowed to follow his standard with a number of men, and to bear arms in his defence. These officers again parcelled out their lands to their dependants, enjoining them the same duty. This was admirably calculated for defence against a foreign enemy, but it degenerated into a system of oppression. The great body of the people were reduced to servitude; they were attached to the soil which they cultivated, and were transferred with it from one proprietor to another.

The institution of Chivalry, which was coeval with the Feudal System, contributed ultimately to abolish the latter, and to introduce politeness. During the feudal government, the sovereign authority was very limited. There was no protection for the weak against insult and injury, but what was afforded by the valour and generosity of private persons. Young warriors at first, and afterwards the nobles, employed themselves in the defence of the oppressed, and sought only as their reward the smile of beauty. Each knight had

his mistress, whose approbation stimulated his valour, and whose superior beauty and accomplishments he maintained against all competitors. In the company of the women, the men acquired elegance of manners and refined sensibility, which checked their passions and gradually led them to refinement. When feudalism began to decline, chivalry fell into disuse.

WILLIAM RUFUS, THIRD SON OF THE CONQUEROR.

William Rufus-metirod next had his reign.

WILLIAM RUFUS, on coming to the crown, was opposed by a confederacy in favour of his brother Robert Duke of Normandy. But William ingratiated himself with the native English, and was enabled to dissipate the confederacy before his brother could arrive. He was accidentally shot whilst hunting in the New Forest. He rebuilt London Bridge, raised a new wall round the tower, and erected Westminster Hall. In the reign of this king the crusades, or holy wars, were first projected.

The tragical death of William is the most striking incident in his history. One day, as he was mounting his horse, in order to take his customary amusement of hunting in the New Forest, he is said to have been stopped by a monk, who warned him, from some dreams he had the night before, to abstain from that day's diversion. Rufus, smiling at his superstition, ordered him to be paid for his zeal, but desired him to have more favourable dreams for the future. Thus setting forward, he began the chase, attended by Walter

Tyrrel, a French knight. Towards sunset, they found themselves separated from the rest of their retinue; and the king dismounted, either through fatigue, or in expectation of a fresh horse. Just at that instant a stag bounded out before him; and Rufus, drawing his bow, wounded the animal, yet not so mortally but that it fled, while he followed in hopes of seeing it fall. As the setting sun beamed in his face, he held up his hands before his eyes, and stood in that posture, when Tyrrel, who had been engaged in the same pursuit, let fly an arrow, which glancing from a tree, struck the king to the heart. He dropped dead instantaneously; while the innocent author of his death, terrified at the accident, put spurs to his horse, hastened to the seashore, embarked for France, and joined the crusade that was setting out for Jerusalem. William's body being found by some countrymen passing through the forest, was laid across a horse, and carried to Winchester, where it was next day interred in the cathedral, without ceremony, or any marks of respect. Few lamented his fate, and none of the courtiers attended his funeral.

It requires no great art to draw the character of a prince whose vices were scarcely compensated by one virtue. Rufus was a perfidious, encroaching, and dangerous neighbour; an unkind and ungenerous relation; a rapacious, and yet a prodigal prince.

THE CRUSADES.

THE Turks, who are descended from the ancient Scythians, having established themselves in Asia in the early ages, were constantly, under successive caliphs, adding some new conquest to their empire. About twenty years after the taking of Jerusalem by the Turks, Peter the hermit, a native of Amiens in Picardy, visited the Holy Sepulchre, and beheld with indignation the injuries and oppression to which the Christian name was exposed in Palestine. Returning from his pilgrimage, he feelingly described the sufferings which the devotees and natives endured, and called upon the Christian nations to deliver the Holy Land from the Infidels. All the kingdoms of Europe finally engaged in the Crusade, and at last retook the city of Jerusalem, after a siege rendered famous by Tasso's immortal poem. On entering the city, a dreadful slaughter of the Moslems was made by the disciples of the Prince of Peace, and after this horrible carnage, they repaired to prostrate themselves at the sepulchre of Christ!

The Crusades were attended with evils and with advantages to the nations of Europe. They injured the population, by depriving the countries of their inhabitants, and impoverished them by expending their treasures. On the other hand, as the taking up the cross against the infidels, was esteemed a sufficient *penance* for the worst of crimes, the Crusades carried

off all the profligate and abandoned of the European world. The Crusaders, on their return, brought from the East some of the writings of the ancients; and they had acquired during their stay a taste for the arts and sciences. A commercial intercourse was also established during the holy wars, between Europe and Asia, which has continued ever since. Coats of arms were first used in the Crusades, to distinguish the different chiefs, under their heavy iron armour, which entirely covered their bodies.

HENRY I., YOUNGEST SON OF THE CONQUEROR.

Henry-memettod, when Rufus had yielded
The sceptre of England, succeeded to wield it.

HENRY I., surnamed Beaclerc, on account of his learning, usurped the throne, which of right belonged to his elder brother, Robert duke of Normandy. He united the Saxon and Norman blood by marrying a female of the Saxon line. He obtained a decisive victory over his brother Robert, and annexed his dukedom to the English crown.

Henry is universally admitted to have been a wise and valiant prince; but his valour was tinged with barbarity, and his wisdom with crafty policy. His treatment of his brother Robert reflects disgrace on his memory. He detained him a prisoner after his defeat, during the remainder of his life, which was no less than twenty-eight years; and he died in the castle of Cardiff, in Glamorganshire. It is even said by some, that he was deprived of his sight by a red-hot copper

bason applied to his eyes; while his brother attempted to stifle the reproaches of his conscience, by founding the abbey of Reading, which was then considered as a sufficient atonement for every degree of barbarity.

The last years of Henry's life were deeply shadowed by affliction. His son, whom he had taken over to Normandy, to receive the homage of the barons, was shipwrecked on his return. Henry entertained hopes for several days that his son had put into some distant port of England; but when certain intelligence of the calamity was brought him, he fainted away, and was never seen to smile from that moment to the day of his death. His restless desires having now nothing left worth toiling for, he appeared more fond of repose than ambition. His daughter Matilda, however, becoming a widow, he married her a second time to Geoffrey Plantagenet, eldest son of the count of Anjou, and endeavoured to ensure her accession, by obliging his barons to recognise her as heir of his dominions, and bequeathing to her the succession to the throne.

The Jews were at this time persecuted in every country, and every man's hand was against them. They first arrived in England in the time of William the Conqueror, and were guilty of great enormities, by which the public indignation was strongly excited against them, and extensive and repeated massacres of them were occasioned. Their business was usury; and such were their gains, and so great was their avarice, that this wretched people submitted to every cruelty and indignity, rather than forego their lucrative employment.

THE HOUSE OF BLOIS.

STEPHEN, SON OF ADELA, FOURTH DAUGHTER OF
WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR AND THE COUNT OF
BLOIS.

Stephen-momendos, who seized on the crown,
Was opposed by Matilda the heir to the throne.

As every expedient was used during the life of the late king to fix the succession in his family, he, among others, thought that the aggrandizing his nearest relations would not be an impolitic step. He only dreaded the designs of Robert and his adherents, no way mistrusting any attempts from another quarter. With these views he was very liberal in heaping favours upon the children of his sister Adela, who had been married to the count of Blois. He thought they would be the strongest safeguard to protect him from the aspiring attempts of his brother, or his posterity; and he resolved to load them with favours, as being too far removed from the crown to entertain any hopes of succeeding in their designs to obtain it: in pursuance of this plan, he had, some years before his death, invited Stephen and Henry, the two youngest of his sister's sons, into England, and received them with great honour and esteem. No sooner, however, was the king dead, than Stephen, notwithstanding he had taken an oath of allegiance to Matilda, usurped the

throne; but his despotism induced the Earl of Gloucester and David king of Scotland to take up arms in support of her right. Stephen was forced from the throne, and Matilda was crowned at Winchester with great solemnity; but her haughty behaviour occasioned the nobles to confederate in favour of Stephen, who was again placed on the throne. After a bloody contest, it was finally agreed that Henry, Matilda's son, should succeed to the throne on the demise of Stephen, which event took place at Canterbury about a year after the treaty.

The fortune of many princes gives them, with posterity, the reputation of wisdom and virtue. Stephen wanted success in all his schemes but that of ascending the throne; and consequently his virtues and abilities now remain doubtful. If we estimate them by the happiness of his subjects, they will appear in a very despicable light; for England was never more miserable than during his reign; but if we consider them as they appear in his private conduct, few monarchs can boast more. Active, generous, and brave, his sole aim was to destroy a vile aristocracy that oppressed the people; but the abilities of no man, however politic or intrepid, were then sufficient to resist an evil that was too firmly supported by power. The faults, therefore, of this monarch's reign, are entirely to be imputed to the ungovernable spirit of the people; but his virtues were his own.

LINE OF PLANTAGENET.

MEMORIAL VERSES

Plantagenet Henry-memosud appeared,
The first Richard-memipod in fight never feared;
 The infamous *John-emomopped* then came,
 Then *the third Harry-mamcod*, a King but in name,
The first Edward-marad renown'd on the plain,
The next Edward-mentord was cruelly slain;
Edward the Third-menar justly renowned,
Richard the Second-monrord was dethroned.

HENRY II. SON OF MATILDA, DAUGHTER OF HENRY I.
 AND GEOFFREY PLANTAGENET, COUNT OF ANJOU.

Plantagenet Henry-memosud appeared.

HENRY the Second considerably impaired the feudal government. Immediately on his coming to the throne, he began to correct those abuses, and to resume those privileges, which had been extorted from the weakness or the credulity of his predecessors. He immediately dismissed all those mercenary soldiers who had committed infinite disorders in the nation. He ordered all the castles which had been erected since the death of Henry the First, and were become receptacles of rapine, to be demolished, except a few which he retained in his own hands for the protection of the kingdom. The adulterated coin was cried down, and

new money struck, of the right value and standard. He resumed many of those benefactions which had been made to churches and monasteries in the former reigns. He gave charters to several towns, by which the citizens claimed their freedom and privileges, independent of any superior but himself. These charters were the ground-work of English liberty. The struggles which had before this time been, whether the king, or the barons, or the clergy, should be despotic over the people, now began to assume a new aspect; and a fourth order, namely, that of the more opulent of the people, began to claim a share in the administration. Thus was the feudal government at first impaired; and liberty began to be more equally diffused throughout the nation.

Thomas a Becket, archbishop of Canterbury, and the first man of English extraction, who had, since the Norman conquest, risen to any share of power, caused great disquietude to the king, by his endeavours to extend the privileges of the church, which it had been Henry's aim to abridge. The insolence and overbearing manner of this prelate, exhausted the patience of the king, and on one occasion he burst into an exclamation that he had no friends about him, or he would not so long have been exposed to the insults of the ungrateful hypocrite. These words excited the attention of the whole court, and armed four of his most resolute attendants to gratify their monarch's secret inclinations. The names of these knights and gentlemen of his household were Reginald Fitz-Urse, William de Tracy, Hugh de Morville, and Richard Brito, who immediately communicated their thoughts to each other. They instantly bound themselves by an oath to revenge their king's quarrel and, secretly

retiring from court, took shipping at different ports, and met the next day at the castle of Saltwode, within six miles of Canterbury. Some menacing expressions which they had dropped, and their sudden departure, gave the king reason to suspect their design. He therefore sent messengers to overtake and forbid them, in his name, to commit any violence; but these orders arrived too late to prevent their fatal purpose. The conspirators, being joined by some assistants at the place of their meeting, proceeded to Canterbury with all the haste their bloody intentions required. Advancing directly to Becket's house, and entering his apartment, they reproached him very fiercely for the rashness and the insolence of his conduct; as if they had been willing to enjoy his terrors before they destroyed him. Becket, however, was not in the least terrified; but vindicated his actions with that zeal and resolution, which nothing, probably, but the consciousness of his innocence, could inspire. The conspirators felt the force of his replies; and were particularly enraged at a charge of ingratitude, which he objected to three of them, who had been formerly retained in his service. During this altercation, the time approached for Becket to assist at vespers, whither he went unguarded, the conspirators following, and preparing for their attempt. As soon as he had reached the altar, where it is just to think he aspired at the glory of martyrdom, they all fell upon him; and when they had cloven his head with repeated blows, he dropped down dead before the altar of St. Benedict, which was besmeared with his blood and brains. This atrocious outrage brought the king into great disrepute, and to pacify the church, he consented to be scourged at the tomb of Becket, as an expiation for the crime.

To efface the remembrance of Becket's murder from the minds of the people, Henry undertook an expedition against Ireland, which he, in the end, subdued, and annexed to the English crown. The joy which this conquest diffused was very great; and Henry seemed now to have attained the summit of his wishes. He was undisputed monarch of the greatest domain in Europe; father of a numerous progeny, that gave both lustre and authority to his crown; victorious over all his enemies, and cheerfully obeyed by all his subjects. Henry, his eldest son, had been anointed king, and was acknowledged as undoubted successor; Richard, his second son, was invested with the duchy of Guienne and Poictou, Geoffrey, his third son, inherited, in right of his wife, the duchy of Bretagne; and John, his youngest, was designed as king in Ireland. Such was the flattering prospect of grandeur before him; but such is the instability of human happiness, that this very exaltation of his family proved the means of imbittering his future life, and disturbing his government.

Among the few vices ascribed to this monarch, unlimited gallantry was one. Queen Eleanor, whom he married from motives of ambition, and who had been divorced from her former royal consort for her incontinence, was long become disagreeable to Henry; and he sought in others those satisfactions which he could not find with her. Among the number of his mistresses we have the name of Fair Rosamond, whose personal charms and premature death make so conspicuous a figure in the romances and ballads of this period. He concealed her in a labyrinth in Woodstock Park, where he passed in her company his hours of vacancy and *pleasure*. How long this secret intercourse continued

we are not informed. It was not, however, so closely concealed but that it came to the queen's knowledge, who, as the accounts add, being guided by a clue of silk to her fair rival's retreat, obliged her, by holding a drawn dagger to her breast, to swallow poison.

The latter part of Henry's reign was rendered miserable by the rebellion of his children; who were incited by the queen to set at defiance the government and authority of their father. He died, uttering maledictions on them, at the castle of Chinon, in France. Of four sons, Richard and John successively filled the throne of England: Geoffrey, the eldest, was father of prince Arthur, whose unhappy fate remains to be recorded.

In the course of a reign of thirty-five years, Henry displayed all the abilities of a politician, all the sagacity of a legislator, and all the magnanimity of a hero.

RICHARD I. SON OF HENRY II.

The first Richard-memipod in fight never fear'd.

RICHARD commenced his reign by an act of cruelty to the Jews, whose numbers had considerably increased, and who were odious to his subjects. To ingratiate himself still more with his people, he entered with ardour into the romantic follies of the age, and perhaps impelled more by a love of military glory than actuated by superstition, resolved upon an expedition to the Holy Land, and took every method to raise money for so expensive an undertaking. His father had left him a treasure of above a hundred thousand marks; and this sum he endeavoured to augment by all expedients, however pernicious to the public, or dangerous to

royal authority. He set up to sale the revenues and manors of the crown, and several offices of the greatest trust and power. Liberties, charters, castles, and employments, were given to the best bidders.

After performing prodigies of valour in his battles with the infidels, and achieving exploits that would better become a hero in romance, than a sovereign of England, he was returning to his kingdom; when Leopold, duke of Austria, caused him to be arrested and cast into prison. The English remained for some time in ignorance of their monarch's fate; and when at length they received certain intelligence of his detention, they stipulated for his release on payment of a ransom amounting to about three hundred thousand pounds of our money, and celebrated his return with every demonstration of joy.

The death of Richard was a death of enterprise and romance. A vassal of the crown, having discovered a treasure in his field, sent part of it to the king, and retained the rest himself. Richard, as superior lord, claimed the whole; and, upon refusal, attacked the castle of Chalus, where the treasure had been deposited. On the fourth day of the siege, as he was riding round the place to observe where the assault might be given with the fairest success, he was aimed at by one Bertram de Gourdon, an archer from the castle, and pierced in the shoulder with an arrow. The wound was not in itself dangerous: but an unskillful surgeon endeavouring to disengage the arrow from the flesh, so rankled the wound that it mortified, and brought on fatal symptoms. Richard, when he found his end approaching, made a will, in which he bequeathed the kingdom, with all his treasure, to his brother John, except a fourth part, which he distributed among his servants.

He ordered also that the archer who had shot him should be brought into his presence, and demanded "what injury he had done him that he should take away his life?" The prisoner answered with deliberate intrepidity, "You killed with your own hands my father and my two brothers; and you intended to have hanged me. I am now in your power, and my torments may give you revenge; but I will endure them with pleasure, since it is my consolation that I have rid the world of a tyrant." Richard, struck with this answer, ordered the soldier to be presented with one hundred shillings, and set at liberty; but Marcade, the general who commanded under him, like a true ruffian, ordered him to be flayed alive, and then hanged.

Richard had all the qualities that could gain the admiration and love of a barbarous age, and few of those that could ensure the approbation of his more refined posterity. He was open, magnanimous, generous, and brave, to a degree of romantic excess. But then he was cruel, proud, and resentful. He valued neither the blood nor the treasure of his subjects; and he enfeebled his states by useless expeditions, and by wars calculated rather to promote his own revenge than their interest.

Richard the First assumed the motto of "God and my right."

JOHN, FOURTH SON OF HENRY III.

The infamous *John-enmopped* bore rule.

SCARCELY had John succeeded to the throne, when his right to govern was disputed on behalf of prince Arthur, son of his brother Geoffrey. The pretensions

of the young aspirant, then only twelve years of age, were seconded by Philip king of France, who desired nothing so much as an opportunity to shake the throne of John, and embarrass the affairs of England. Ultimately, however, Arthur, together with Constantia his mother, threw themselves under the protection of John; but the latter, instigated by his fears, planned and executed an act of baseness and cruelty, which entirely estranged his people's regard, and added a fearful item to the long catalogue of crimes that disgraced his reign.

No other expedient to allay his fears respecting Arthur, suggested itself, but what is foremost in the imagination of tyrants, namely, the young prince's death. How this brave youth was despatched, is not well known: certain it is, that from the moment of his confinement he was never heard of more. The most probable account of this horrid transaction is as follows. The king having first proposed to one of his servants, William de la Braye, to despatch Arthur, the brave domestic replied, that he was a gentleman, and not an executioner. This officer having positively refused to comply, John had recourse to another instrument, who went with proper directions to the castle where Arthur was confined, to destroy him. But still this prince's fate seemed suspended: for Hubert de Bourg, chamberlain to the king, and constable of the place, willing to save him, undertook the cruel office himself, and sent back the assassin to his employer. However, he was soon obliged to confess the imposture; for Arthur's subjects vowing the severest revenge, Hubert, to appease them, revealed the secret of his pretended death, and assured them that their prince was still alive, and in his custody. John, finding that *his emissaries* had more compunction than himself,

resolved with his own hands to execute the bloody deed; and for that purpose he commanded that Arthur should be removed to the castle of Rouen, situated upon the river Seine. It was at midnight when John came in a boat to the place, and ordered the young prince to be brought before him. Long confinement, solitude, and the continuance of bad fortune, had now broken this generous youth's spirit; and perceiving that his death was meditated, he threw himself in the most imploring manner upon his knees before his uncle, and begged for mercy. John was too much hardened in the school of tyranny, to feel any pity for his wretched suppliant. His youth, his affinity, his merits, were all disregarded, or were even obnoxious in a rival. The barbarous tyrant, making no reply, stabbed him with his own hands; and, fastening a stone to the dead body, threw it into the Seine. This inhuman action rid John of a hated rival; but, happily for the instruction of future princes, it opened the way to his future ruin. Having in this manner shewn himself the enemy of mankind in the prosperity of his reign, the whole world seemed to turn their back upon him in his distress.

John, having by this act of inhumanity incurred the detestation of mankind, Philip of France considered the present moment as peculiarly favourable to his designs against England, and rapidly regained possession of the provinces that had been annexed to the British crown. To increase the difficulties of his position, John incensed the pope against him, by refusing to admit to the archiepiscopal chair, one Stephen Langton, who had been nominated thereto by the papal see. To punish his obstinacy, after all other expedients had failed, the pontiff at length issued a sentence of interdict against

the nation. This instrument of terror in the hands of the see of Rome, was calculated to strike the senses in the highest degree, and to operate upon the superstitious minds of the people. By it a stop was immediately put to divine service, and to the administration of all the sacraments but baptism. The church-doors were shut, the statues of the saints were laid on the ground. The dead were refused Christian burial, and were thrown in the ditches and on the highways, without the usual rites, or any funeral solemnity. Marriage was celebrated in the church-yards, and the people were prohibited from the use of meat, as in times of public penance. They were debarred from all pleasure; they were prohibited from shaving their beards, from saluting each other, and giving any attention to their apparel. Every circumstance seemed calculated to inspire religious terror, and testified the apprehensions of divine vengeance and indignation. Against such calamity, increased by the deplorable lamentations of the clergy, it was in vain that John exerted all his authority, threatened and punished, and opposed the terrors of his temporal power to their ecclesiastical censures. It was in vain that he banished some, and confined others; it was in vain that he treated the adherents of Langton with rigour, and ordered all the concubines of the clergy to be imprisoned. The church conquered by perseverance; and John saw himself every day growing more obnoxious and more contemptible. The barons, many of whose families he had dishonoured by his licentious amours, were almost to a man his declared enemies. The clergy represented him in the most odious light to the people: and nothing remained to him but the feeble relics of *that* power which had been so strongly fixed by his

father, that all his vices were hitherto unable totally to overthrow it.

The pope beheld with much satisfaction all the consequences resulting from the interdict which he anticipated it would produce; and by pronouncing a sentence of excommunication against John, by absolving his subjects from their allegiance, and by exciting and encouraging the aggressions of the French king, the subtle pontiff threw consternation and terror throughout England, and reduced the refractory to the verge of ruin. By a humiliating and disgraceful compliance with the exorbitant demands of the holy see, John once more relieved himself from his embarrassments. The terrors of his situation wrought so powerfully on his mind, that, with little difficulty, he was induced to take the following extraordinary oath, kneeling upon his knees, and with his hands held up between those of the Roman legate.

“I, John, by the grace of God, king of England and lord of Ireland, in order to expiate my sins, from my own free will, and the advice of my barons, give to the church of Rome, to pope Innocent and his successors, the kingdom of England, and all other prerogatives of my crown. I will hereafter hold them as the pope’s vassal. I will be faithful to God, to the church of Rome, to the pope my master, and his successors legitimately erected. I promise to pay him a tribute of a thousand marks yearly; to wit, seven hundred for the kingdom of England, and three hundred for the kingdom of Ireland.” Having thus done homage to the legate, and agreed to recognise Langton as primate, he received the crown, which he had been supposed to have forfeited, while the legate trampled under his feet the tribute which John had consented to pay.

Nothing warned by his previous difficulties, John again gave the reins to his tyrannical disposition, and occasioned a general rising of the barons throughout the kingdom. Reproaches, menaces, and intreaties having failed of effect, the monarch found that nothing short of compliance with their demands could restore peace to the nation, or secure his tottering throne. He accordingly promised to meet the barons and grant all their demands.

The ground where the king's commissioners met the barons was between Staines and Windsor, at a place called Runnimede, still held in reverence by posterity, as the spot where the standard of freedom was first erected in England. There the barons appeared, with a vast number of knights and warriors, on the fifteenth day of June, while those on the king's part came a day or two after. Both sides encamped apart, like open enemies. The debates between power and precedent are generally but of short continuance. The barons, determined on carrying their aims, would admit of few abatements; and the king's agents being for the most part in their interests, few debates ensued. After some days, the king, with a facility that was somewhat suspicious, signed and sealed the charter required of him; a charter which continues in force to this day, and is the famous bulwark of English liberty, known by the name of *MAGNA CHARTA*.

John, no less impolitic than vicious and tyrannical, had scarcely placed his signet to the Great Charter, when, in direct opposition to its provisions, he resumed his former arbitrary and intolerant rule. The barons, who had placed too great reliance on his submission to them, found themselves in no condition to resist his *outrages*, and as a last resource they entered into a

league with Philip. England was now reduced to the deplorable alternative of acknowledging a king whose sway was hateful, or of sinking into a mere province of France. An event was, however, hastening on to save the kingdom from impending ruin. Some distrust of the French monarch had arisen in the minds of the barons, and many had in consequence returned to their allegiance. Thus reinforced, John assembled a powerful force to oppose his rival Philip; but his ignorance of the tides on the Lincolnshire coast, along which his route lay, occasioned the entire loss of his carriages, treasures, and baggage. He himself escaped with the greatest difficulty, and arrived at the abbey of Swinstead, where his grief for the loss he had sustained, and the distracted state of his affairs, threw him into a fever, which soon appeared to be fatal. Next day, being unable to ride on horseback, he was carried in a litter to the castle of Sleaford, and thence removed to Newark, where, after having made his will, he died, in the fifty-first year of his age, and the eighteenth of his detested reign.

MAGNA CHARTA.

THOUGH this Charter is deemed the foundation of English liberty, it is only a renewal of the laws of Edward the Confessor, and the Charters of Henry I., and Henry II.; and at first it was applicable to the barons, knights, and burgesses only, but, as the principles of liberty enlarged, its benefits became applicable to the meanest subject. The most valuable stipulation in this Charter, and the grand security of the lives, liberties, and properties of Englishmen, is the following provision. "No freeman shall be apprehended or

imprisoned, or disseised, or outlawed, or banished, or any other way destroyed; nor will we go upon him, nor will we send upon him, except by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land." The stipulation next in importance, seems to be the singular concession,—“That to no man will we sell, to no man will we delay, right and justice.” These concessions shew, in a very strong light, the violent conduct and iniquitous practices of the Anglo-Norman princes.

HENRY III. SON OF JOHN.

Then the *third Harry-mameod*, a king but in name.

THE joy of the English on being relieved from the odious tyranny of John, was considerably damped by the ambitious designs of Philip of France, who considered the present crisis a highly favourable opportunity for accomplishing his views. Luckily for the nation, Philip had incurred the displeasure of the pope, and the papal authority favoured the people in opposing his schemes.

In this disposition of the people, the claims of any native, with even the smallest pretensions to favour, would have had a most probable chance of succeeding. A claim was accordingly made in favour of young Henry, the son of the late king, who was now but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke, a nobleman of great worth and valour, who had faithfully adhered to John in all the fluctuations of his fortune, was, at the time of that prince's death, mareschal of England, and consequently at the head of the army. This nobleman determined to support the declining interests of the young prince, and had him solemnly crowned by the

bishops of Winchester and Bath, at Gloucester. In order also to enlarge and confirm his own authority upon the present occasion, a great council of the barons was summoned at Bristol, where the earl was chosen guardian to the king, and protector of the kingdom. His first act was highly pleasing to the people, and reconciled them to the interests of the young prince; he made young Henry grant a new charter of liberties, which contained very few exceptions from that already extorted from his predecessor.

Henry was, however, a weak prince, and on the death of his great friend and adviser, the Earl of Pembroke, he suffered himself to be swayed by favourites; in consequence of which, the barons became disaffected towards him. Encouragement to foreigners was the chief complaint against the king; and it was now expected that the people were to be no longer aggrieved by seeing such advanced before them. But their hopes were quickly disappointed; for the king having married Eleanor, daughter of the count of Provence, transferred his affections to the strangers of that country, whom he caressed with the fondest affection, and enriched with the most imprudent generosity. Places, dignities, and vast treasures, were lavished upon them; many young noblemen, who were wards to the crown, were married to wives of that country; and when the sources of the king's liberality were dried up, he resumed all the grants he had formerly made, in order to continue his favours. The resentment of every rank of people was excited by this mischievous attachment; but their anger was scarcely kept within bounds, when they saw a new swarm of these intruders come over from Gascony, with Isabella, the king's mother, who had

been some time before married to the Count de la Marche. To these just causes of complaint were added the king's unsuccessful expeditions to the continent, his total want of economy, and his oppressive exactions, which were but the result of the former. The kingdom, therefore, waited with gloomy resolution, resolving to take vengeance when the general discontent should arrive at maturity.

To these temporal discontents, those arising from the rapacity of the see of Rome were added. The clergy of England, while they were contending for the power of the pope, were not aware that they were effectually opposing their own interests; for the pontiff, having by various arts obtained the investiture of all livings and prelacies in the kingdom, failed not to fill up every vacancy with his own creatures. His power being established, he now began to turn it to his profit, and to enrich the church by every art of extortion and avarice. At this time all the chief benefices of the kingdom were conferred on Italians. Great numbers of that nation were sent over at one time to be provided for; the king's chaplain alone is said to have held at once seven hundred ecclesiastical livings. These abuses became too glaring even for the blind superstition of the people to submit to; they rose in tumults against the Italian clergy, pillaged their barns, wasted their fields, and insulted their persons. But these were transient obstacles to the papal encroachments. The pontiff exacted the revenues of all vacant benefices; the twentieth of all ecclesiastical livings without exception; the third of such as exceeded a hundred marks a year, and the half of such as were held by non-residents: he claimed the goods of all intestate clergymen; he pretended

a right of inheriting all money obtained by usury ; and he levied voluntary contributions on the people. The indignities which the people suffered from these intruding ecclesiastics were still more oppressive than their exactions. On a certain occasion, while the English were complaining of the avarice of their king, and his profusion to foreign favourites, the pope's legate made his triumphal entry into England, and some business induced him to visit Oxford before his return. He was received there with all possible splendour and ceremony, and the most sumptuous preparations were made for his table. One day, as the legate's dinner was preparing, several scholars of the university entered his kitchen, some incited by motives of curiosity, others of hunger : while they were thus employed in admiring the luxury and opulence in which this dignity was served, and of which they were only to be the spectators, a poor Irish scholar ventured to beg relief from the cook, who was an Italian, as were all the legate's domestics. This brutal fellow, instead of giving alms to the poor Irishman, threw a ladle-full of boiling water in his face, and seemed to exult in his brutality. The indignity so provoked a Welsh student who was near, that, with a bow which he happened to have in his hand, he shot the cook dead with an arrow. The legate, hearing the tumult, retired in a fright to the tower of the church, where he remained till night-fall. As soon as he found that he might retire in safety, he hastened to the king, who was then at London, and complained to him of the outrage. The king, with his usual submission to the church, appeared in a violent passion, and offered to give immediate satisfaction by putting the offenders to death. The legate at first seemed to

insist upon vengeance, but at length was appeased by a proper submission from the university. All the scholars of that school which had offended him, were ordered to be stripped of their gowns, and go in procession barefooted, with halters about their necks, to the legate's house, and there were directed humbly to crave his absolution and pardon.

The barons, instigated by Simon Montford, earl of Leicester, rose in a body to oppose Henry's government, and the first place where this formidable confederacy discovered itself was the parliament-house, where the barons appeared in complete armour. The king upon his entry, asked them what was their intention; to which they submissively replied, to make him their sovereign, by confirming his power, and to have their grievances redressed. Henry, who was ready enough to promise whatever was demanded, instantly assured them of his intentions to give all possible satisfaction; and for that purpose summoned another parliament at Oxford, to digest a new plan of government, and to elect proper persons who were to be intrusted with the chief authority. This parliament, afterwards called the *mad parliament*, went expeditiously to work upon the business of reformation. Twenty-four barons were appointed, with supreme authority, to reform the abuses of the state, and Leicester was placed at their head. The first step was calculated for the good of the people, as it contained the rude outline of the house of commons, which makes a part of the constitution at this day. They ordered that four knights should be chosen by each county, who should inquire into the grievances of their respective constituents, and attend at the ensuing parliament to give information of their com-

they rushed upon certain death. Some time before, the capital of this tribe had been taken by the Tartars, and the inhabitants put to the sword; yet there still remained numbers of them that were educated in that gloomy school of superstition; and one of those undertook to murder the prince of England. In order to gain admittance to Edward's presence, he pretended to have letters to deliver from the governor of Joppa, proposing a negociation; and thus he was permitted to see the prince, who conversed with him freely in the French language, which the assassin understood. In this manner he continued to amuse him for some time, being permitted to have free egress and regress from the royal apartments. It was on Friday in Whitsun-week, that he found Edward sitting in his apartment alone, in a loose garment, the weather being extremely hot. This was the opportunity the infidel had so long earnestly desired; and, looking round to see if there were any present to prevent him, and finding him alone, he drew a dagger from his breast, and attempted to plunge it into the prince's bosom. Edward had just time to perceive the murderer's intention, and, with great presence of mind, received the blow upon his arm. Perceiving the assassin about to repeat his blow, he struck him at once to the ground with his foot; and, wresting the weapon from his hand, buried it instantly in his bosom. The domestics, hearing a noise, quickly came into the room, and soon wreaked their vengeance on the body of the perfidious wretch, who had thus abused the laws of hospitality. The wound received by the prince was the more dangerous, as having been inflicted with a poisoned dagger; and it soon began to exhibit some symptoms that appeared fatal. He therefore expected his fate with great intre-

pidity, and made his will, contented to die in a cause
 which he was assured would procure him endless
 felicity. But his usual good fortune prevailed; an
 English surgeon of extraordinary skill, by making
 deep incisions, and cutting away the mortified parts,
 completed the cure, and restored him to health in little
 more than a fortnight. A recovery so unexpected was
 considered by the superstitious army as miraculous;
 nor were there wanting some, who alleged that he
 owed his safety to the piety of Eleonora his wife, who
 sucked the poison from the wound, to save his life, at
 the hazard of her own. However this be, it is probable
 that the personal danger he incurred, by continuing
 the war in Palestine, might induce him more readily
 to listen to terms of accommodation, which were pro-
 posed soon after by the soldan of Babylon. He
 received that monarch's ambassadors in a very honour-
 able manner, and concluded a truce with him for ten
 years, ten weeks, and ten days. Having thus settled
 the affairs of Palestine in the best manner they would
 admit of, he set sail for Sicily, where he arrived in
 safety, and there he first heard the news of the king's
 death, as well as that of his own infant son John.
 He bore the last with resignation, but appeared ex-
 tremely afflicted at the death of his father; at which,
 when the king of Sicily expressed his surprise, he
 observed, that the death of a son was a loss that he
 might hope to repair, but that of a father was irreparable.
 Edward having returned to England, commenced
 his reign by a series of cruel severities towards the
 Jews, and great numbers of this unhappy race were
 sacrificed to the popular prejudices of the day. The
 king afterwards undertook an expedition against
 Llewelyn prince of Wales, whom he eventually over-

plaints. They ordained that three sessions of parliament should be regularly held every year; that a new high sheriff should be annually elected; that no wards or castles should be intrusted to foreigners; no new forests made; nor the revenues of any counties let to farm. These constitutions were so just, that some of them have been continued to the present time; yet it was not the security of the people, but the establishment of their own power, that this odious confederacy endeavoured to effect.

The designs of the barons were impeded, and the falling throne was secured by the vigorous and resolute measures adopted by prince Edward, son of the king. After restoring order to his father's dominions, the young prince entered on an expedition against the infidels in the holy land; yet scarcely had he entered on the crusade, when the state of his father's health rendered his return to England necessary. Letters were accordingly written, but before Edward could arrive, the king had expired. Henry died at Westminster, in the sixty-sixth year of his age, and the fifty-seventh of his reign. He was a prince more adapted for private than public life; his ease, simplicity, and good nature, would have secured him that happiness in a lower station, of which they deprived him upon a throne. However, from his calamities the people afterwards derived the most permanent blessings; that liberty which they extorted from his weakness, they continued to preserve under bolder princes who succeeded him. The flame of freedom had now diffused itself from the incorporated towns through the whole mass of the people, and ever afterwards blazed forth at convenient seasons; so that, in proportion as the upper orders lost, the people were

sure to be gainers. In this contest, though they often laid down their lives, and suffered all the calamities of civil war, yet those calamities were considered as nothing, when weighed against the advantages of freedom and security.

EDWARD I. SON OF HENRY III.

The first Edward-marah, renown'd on the plain.

WHILE the unfortunate Henry was thus vainly struggling against the ungovernable spirit of his subjects, his son and successor, Edward, was employed in the holy wars, where he revived the glory of the English name, and made the enemies of Christianity tremble. He had arrived at the city of Acre, in Palestine, just as the Saracens were sitting down to besiege it. He soon relieved the place, followed the enemy, and obtained many victories, which, though splendid, were not decisive. Such, however, were the enemies' terrors at the progress of his arms, that they resolved to destroy by treachery that valiant commander, whom they could not oppose in the field. A tribe of Mahometan enthusiasts had long kept possession of an inaccessible mountain in Syria, under the command of a petty prince, who went, in the Christian armies, under the name of the Old Man of the Mountain, and whose subjects were called Assassins; whence we have since borrowed the name, to signify a private stabber. These men, wholly devoted to their commander, and inflamed with a detestable superstition, undertook to destroy any Christian prince or leader who became obnoxious to their party. It was in vain to threaten them with punishment; they knew *the dangers that awaited them, but, resolute to destroy,*

come, and thus added the principality to his territory. By a cruel policy he ordered all the Welsh Bards to be put to death; rightly supposing that so long as the people were reminded of the deeds of their forefathers they would not readily submit to a conqueror. Edward's Queen was delivered of a son at Caernarvon, who was styled prince of Wales, and, ever since, the eldest sons of the kings of England have been princes of Wales so soon as born. Edward very much reduced the power of Scotland, and, had not his death prevented, would have completed the conquest of that country. He considerably extended the commercial interests of his kingdom, and confirmed the Great Charter. He also established the third part of the national council, the house of commons.

THE SUBJUGATION OF WALES.

WE pause for a moment, to reflect on the final overthrow of a people, who had for so many ages, maintained their liberty and independence. Let us look back to that period when, undisciplined in arms, they fearlessly opposed their naked bodies to the legions of Rome; when they met the invader, ere he had polluted with his foot the soil of their country, and contended with him for the home of their fathers. After repeated but ineffectual sacrifices at the altar of liberty they retired to the mountains, and though their native land had become the prey of the spoiler, they at least continued free. The wild harp rung on the hills of their refuge, and still they chaunted the song of freedom. Years rolled by and found them the same. A race was left after the lapse of ages, that inherited the virtues and lofty valour of their progenitors: these

were not Roman captives, and those were not Saxon thralls. And though conquest at last overtook them, their hearts were not subdued; though the hand of the minstrel was deprived of its cunning, and tales of other times were no longer told in the festive hall, they ceased not to remember their ancestors, and to hand down their glory to posterity.

EDWARD II. SON OF EDWARD I.

The next Edward-mentor was cruelly slain.

EDWARD, though enjoined by his father to prosecute the war with Scotland, after a few ineffectual and feeble efforts, relinquished his designs against that country. He took no steps to check the progress of Bruce: his march into that country being rather a procession of pageantry, than a warlike expedition. Bruce, no longer dreading a great conqueror in the field, boldly issued from his retreats, and even obtained a considerable advantage over Aymer de Valence, who commanded the English forces. Young Edward looked tamely on, and, instead of repressing the enemy, endeavoured to come to an accommodation. The English barons, who had been kept under during the preceding reign, now saw that the sceptre was fallen into such feeble hands, that they might re-assert their former independence with impunity.

Yet farther to estrange the affections of his subjects, Edward yielded himself entirely to the domination of unworthy favourites, who abused the power reposed in them, and by their insolence excited the jealousy and indignation of the barons. One of these, was Peter Gaveston, a Gascon knight, who had been employed

in the service of the late king. This young man soon insinuated himself into the affections of his sovereign, and, in fact, was adorned with every accomplishment of person and mind that was capable of creating affection; but he was utterly destitute of those qualities of heart and understanding, that serve to procure esteem. He was beautiful, witty, brave, and active; but then he was vicious, effeminate, debauched, and trifling. These were qualities entirely adapted to the taste of the young monarch, and such as he could not think of living without. He, therefore, took Gaveston into his particular intimacy, and seemed to think no rewards equal to his deserts. Even before his arrival at court from exile, whither he had been sent during the reign of the late king, on account of his debaucheries, Edward endowed him with the whole earldom of Cornwall, which had lately fallen to the crown. He married him soon after to his own niece, and granted him a sum of two and thirty thousand pounds, which the late king had reserved for the maintenance of one hundred and forty knights, who had undertaken to carry his heart to Jerusalem.

The imperious temper of Gaveston at length roused the barons to attempt his utter destruction. Discovering the place of his retreat, whither he had been sent by the king to secure his safety, they executed the sentence of their enmity towards him in the most summary manner. They instantly had him conveyed to a place called Blacklow-hill, where a Welsh executioner, provided for that purpose, severed the head from the body. There appeared a deeper spirit of cruelty now entering the nation, than had been known in times of barbarism and ignorance. It is probable that the mutual slaughters committed by the Christians

and Saracens upon each other, in the crusades, made the people familiar with blood, and taught Christians to butcher each other with the same alacrity with which they were seen to destroy infidels, to whom they seldom gave any quarter.

The king's grief for the loss of his favourite was somewhat diverted by a fresh expedition against Scotland, which terminated, however, in the complete discomfiture of Edward's army in the battle of Bannockburn. This failure caused disaffection among the barons; and Edward once more sought in the company of a favourite, a consolation for the troubles that gathered round him. This second minion, was Hugh le Despenser, a young man of noble English family, of some merit, and very engaging accomplishments. His father was a person of a much more estimable character than the son; he was venerable from his years, and respected through life for his wisdom, his valour, and his integrity. But these excellent qualities were all diminished and vilified, from the moment he and his son began to share the king's favour. The turbulent barons, and Lancaster at their head, regarded them as rivals, and taught the people to despise those accomplishments that only served to eclipse their own. The king, equally weak and unjust in his attachments, instead of profiting by the wisdom of his favourites, endeavoured to strengthen himself by their power. For this purpose he married the young Spenser to his niece; settled upon him some very large possessions in the marches of Wales; and even dispossessed some lords unjustly of their estates, in order to accumulate them upon his favourite. This was a pretext for which the king's enemies had *been long seeking*: the earls of Lancaster and Hereford

flew to arms; and the lords Audley and Amori, who had been dispossessed, joined them with all their forces. Their first measure was to require the king to dismiss or confine his favourite, the young Spenser; menacing him, in case of a refusal, with a determination to obtain their wishes by force. This request was scarcely urged, when they began to shew their resolution to have redress, by pillaging and destroying the lands of young Spenser, and burning his houses. The estates of the father soon after shared the same fate; and the insurgents, having thus satiated themselves with the plunder of this most opulent family, marched to London, to inflict with their own hands that punishment which had been denied to their remonstrances. Finding a free entrance into the city, they so intimidated the parliament, that a sentence was procured of perpetual exile against the two Spensers, and a forfeiture of their fortunes and estates. But an act of this kind, extorted by violence, was not likely to bind the king any longer than necessity compelled him. Some time after, having assembled a small army to punish one of those barons, who had offered an indignity to the queen, he thought it a convenient opportunity to take revenge on all his enemies at once, and to recall the two Spensers, whose company he so ardently desired. In this manner the civil war was rekindled, and the country once more involved in all the horrors of slaughter and devastation.

Edward's troubles were increased by the disaffection of Isabella, the queen consort, who, aided by one Roger Mortimer, her paramour, succeeded in exciting a general revolt in her favour. The unfortunate favourite, Despenser, and his father, were the first victims to their revenge; but they stopped not in their

course till they had effected the déposition of the king himself, who, being taken prisoner, was arraigned as a criminal and committed to the tower. The deposed monarch but a short time survived his misfortunes; he was sent from prison to prison, a wretched outcast, and the sport of his inhuman keepers. He had been at first consigned to the custody of the earl of Leicester; but this nobleman shewing some marks of respect and pity, he was taken out of his hands, and delivered over to lord Berkeley, Maltravers, and Gournay, who were intrusted with the charge of guarding him, each for a month. Whatever his treatment from lord Berkeley might have been, the other two seemed resolved that he should enjoy none of the comforts of life while in their custody. They practised every kind of indignity upon him, as if their design had been to accelerate his death by the bitterness of his sufferings. Among other acts of brutal oppression, it is said that they shaved him for sport in the open fields, using water from a neighbouring ditch. The genius of the people must have been greatly debased, or they would never have permitted such indecencies to be practised on a monarch, whose greatest fault was the violence of his friendships. He is said to have borne his former indignities with patience, but all fortitude forsook him upon this occasion; he looked upon his merciless insulters with an air of fallen majesty, and, bursting into tears, exclaimed, that the time might come when he should be more decently attended. This, however, was but a vain expectation. As his persecutors saw that his death might not arrive, even under every cruelty, till a revolution had been made in his favour, they resolved to rid themselves of their *fears by destroying him at once.* Accordingly, his

two keepers, Gournay and Maltravers, repaired to Berkeley castle, where Edward was then confined; and having concerted a method of putting him to death without any external signs of violence, they threw him on a bed, holding him down by a table, which they placed over him. They then ran a horn pipe up his body, through which they conveyed a red-hot iron; and thus burned his bowels without disfiguring his body. By this cruel artifice, they expected to have their crime concealed; but his horrid shrieks, which were heard at a distance from the castle, gave a suspicion of the murder; and the whole was soon after divulged, by the confession of one of the accomplices. Misfortunes like his must ever create pity; and a punishment so disproportionate to the sufferer's guilt, must wipe away even many of those faults which were justly imputable to this prince. He left two sons and two daughters; Edward III. was his eldest son and successor; John died young; Jane was afterwards married to David Bruce, King of Scotland; and Eleanor was the wife of Reginald, Count of Gueldres.

EDWARD III. SON OF EDWARD II.

Edward the third-menar justly renown'd.

EDWARD the Third possessed spirit and abilities sufficient to revenge the cruelties perpetrated against his father. Having secured the favour of his subjects, by moderation in government and valour in the field, he was quickly enabled to root up the power of Mortimer and the queen. The former was taken prisoner,

and immediately executed; while the more guilty queen was treated with greater lenity, being confined for life in the castle of Risings, with a pension of three thousand pounds a-year.

Having thus freed himself from the principal enemies to his government, Edward turned his attention towards France, the crown of which country he claimed in right of his mother, Isabella, daughter to Philip the Fair and rightful heir to the crown. After a series of minor successes, the arms of Edward effected the total overthrow of France, in the memorable battle of Cressy, in which it is said, the English first made use of artillery.

About three in the afternoon, the famous battle of Cressy began, by the French king's ordering the Genoese archers to charge; but they were so fatigued with their march, that they cried out for a little rest before they should engage. The Count d'Alençon, being informed of their petition, rode up, and reviled them as cowards, commanding them to begin the onset without delay. Their reluctance to begin was still more increased by a heavy shower which fell that instant, and relaxed their bow-strings, so that the discharge they made produced very little effect. On the other hand, the English archers, who kept their bows in cases, and were favoured by a sudden gleam of sunshine that rather dazzled the enemy, let fly their arrows so thick, and with such good aim, that nothing was to be seen among the Genoese but hurry, terror, and dismay. The young Prince of Wales had presence of mind to take advantage of their confusion, and to lead on his line to the charge. The French cavalry, however, commanded by the Count d'Alençon, wheeling round, sustained the combat, and began

to hem the English round. The Earls of Arundel and Northampton now came in to assist the prince, who appeared foremost in every shock, and, wherever he appeared, turning the fortune of the day. The battle now raged around him, and the valour of a boy filled even veterans with astonishment. But their surprise at his courage could not give way to their fears for his safety. As the two earls were apprehensive that some mischance might happen to him in the end, an officer was despatched to the king, desiring that succours might be sent to the prince's relief. Edward, who had all this time, with great tranquillity, viewed the engagement from a wind-mill, demanded, with seeming deliberation, if his son were dead; but being answered that he still lived, and was giving astonishing instances of his valour; "Then tell my generals," cried the king, "that he shall have no assistance from me; the honour of this day shall be his; let him shew himself worthy the profession of arms, and let him be indebted to his own merit alone for victory." This speech, being reported to the prince and his attendants, inspired them with new courage; they made a fresh attack upon the French cavalry, and Count d'Alençon, their bravest commander, was slain. This was the beginning of their total overthrow: the French, being now without a competent leader, were thrown into confusion: the Welsh infantry rushed into the midst of the conflict, and despatched with their long knives those who had survived the fury of the former onset. It was in vain that the King of France seemed almost singly to maintain the combat: he endeavoured to animate his few followers, both by his voice and example; but the victory was too decisive to be resisted: while he

was yet endeavouring to face the enemy, John de Hainault seized the reins of his horse, and, turning him round, carried him off the field of battle. In this engagement, thirty thousand of the French were killed: and, among this number, were John, King of Bohemia; James, King of Majorca; Ralph, Duke of Lorrain, nine counts, four and twenty bannerets, twelve hundred knights, fifteen hundred gentlemen, and four thousand men at arms. There is something remarkable in the fate of the Bohemian monarch, who, though blind, was yet willing to share in the engagement. This unfortunate prince, inquiring the fate of the day, was told that all was lost, and his son Charles obliged to retire desperately wounded; and that the Prince of Wales bore down everything before him. Having received this information, blind as he was, he commanded his knights to lead him into the hottest part of the battle against the young warrior: accordingly, four of them rushed with him into the thickest part of the enemy, and they were all quickly slain.

The whole French army took to flight, and were put to the sword by the pursuers, till night stopped the carnage. The king, on his return to the camp, flew into the arms of the Prince of Wales, and exclaimed, "My valiant son! continue as you have begun; you have acquitted yourself nobly, and are worthy of the kingdom that will be your inheritance." The next morning was foggy; and a party of the militia of Rouen, coming to join the French army, were routed by the English at the first onset; many more also were decoyed by some French standards, which the victors placed on the mountains, and to which the *fugitives* resorted, where they were cut in pieces with-

out mercy. Never was a victory more seasonable, or less bloody, to the English than this. Notwithstanding the great slaughter of the enemy, the conquerors lost but one esquire, three knights, and a few of inferior rank. The crest of the King of Bohemia was three ostrich feathers, with this motto, *Ich dien*, which signifies, in the German language, "I serve." This was thought to be a proper prize to perpetuate the victory: it was accordingly added to the arms of the Prince of Wales, and it has been adopted by all his successors.

While Edward was engaged in these contests with the French, his queen, Philippa, met the Scots, who, under Bruce their king, had invaded the country, and not only defeated their forces, but returned bringing as prisoner the Scottish monarch.

Another victory was also shortly after obtained against the French at Poitiers, and an advantageous peace was concluded with that country; still, however, the English monarch experienced much annoyance from the wavering, and unsettled disposition that prevailed on the continent. The latter years of Edward were embittered by the loss of his son, Edward the Black Prince, whose talents and virtues had given promise to England of a worthy successor to the throne. The old monarch, deserted by his former friends, and in a good measure stripped of his power, at length, expired, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and fifty-first of his reign.

It was in this reign that the order of the Garter was instituted; the number received into which was to consist of twenty-four persons, besides the king. A vulgar story prevails, but unsupported by any ancient authority, that the Countess of Salisbury, at a ball,

happening to drop her garter, the king took it up, and presented it to her with these words, "*Honi soit qui mal y pense.*" Evil to him that evil thinks. This accident is said to have given rise to the order and the motto; it being the spirit of the times to mix love and war together, and for knights to plume themselves upon the slightest tokens that their mistresses were pleased to bestow.

Edward had many children by his queen, Philippa of Hainault; his eldest son, the Black Prince, died before him, but he left a son, named Richard, who succeeded to the throne.

At this time lived Wickliffe, the first reformer of religion.

RICHARD II. SON OF EDWARD THE BLACK PRINCE.

Richard the second-monrord was dethron'd.

RICHARD the Second on his accession to the throne, had scarcely completed his eleventh year. Serious disturbances arose in the very beginning of his reign, caused by the oppression still exercised towards the common people, who had not as yet arrived at any participation in the benefits of the Great Charter. The imposition of the poll-tax, a revolting and disgusting measure, occasioned the flame of discontent to burst forth simultaneously in all its strength.

A blacksmith, well known by the name of Wat Tyler, was the first that excited the people to arms. The tax-gatherers, coming to this man's house while he was work, demanded payment for his daughter, which he refused alleging that she was under the age men-

tioned in the act. One of the brutal collectors insisted on her being a full-grown woman, and immediately attempted giving a very indecent proof of his assertion. This provoked the father to such a degree, that he instantly struck him dead with a blow of his hammer. The by-standers applauded his spirit, and one, and all, resolved to defend his conduct. He was considered as a champion in the cause, and appointed the leader and spokesman of the people. It is easy to imagine the disorders committed by this tumultuous rabble: the whole neighbourhood rose in arms; they burned and plundered wherever they came, and revenged upon their former masters all those insults which they had long sustained with impunity. As the discontent was general, the insurgents increased in proportion as they approached the capital. The flame soon propagated itself into Kent, Hertfordshire, Surrey, Sussex, Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and Lincoln. They were found to amount to above a hundred thousand men by the time they arrived at Blackheath; whence they sent a message to the king, who had taken shelter in the Tower, desiring a conference with him. With this message Richard was desirous of complying, but was intimidated by their fierce demeanor. In the mean time they had entered the city, burning and plundering the houses of such as were obnoxious from their power, or remarkable for their riches. They broke into the Savoy Palace, belonging to the Duke of Lancaster, and put several of his attendants to death. Their animosity was particularly levelled against the lawyers, to whom they showed no mercy. Such was the vehemence of their fury, that the king began to tremble for his own safety; and, knowing that the Tower was not capable

of standing against an assault, he went out among them, and desired to know their demands. They now made a very humble remonstrance, requiring a general pardon, the abolition of slavery, freedom of commerce in market-towns, and a fixed rent, instead of those services required by the tenure of villanage. As these requests were reasonable, the king soon complied: and charters were accordingly made out, ratifying the grant. In the mean time, another body of these insurgents had broken into the Tower, and murdered the primate and the treasurer, with some other persons of distinction. They then divided themselves into bodies, and took up their quarters in different parts of the city. At the head of one of these was Wat Tyler, who led his men into Smithfield, where he was met by the king, who invited him to a conference, under a pretence of hearing and redressing his grievances. Tyler, ordering his companions to retire till he should give them a signal, boldly ventured to meet the king in the midst of his retinue; and accordingly began the conference. The demands of this demagogue are censured by all the historians of the time, as insolent and extravagant; and yet nothing can be more just than those they have delivered for him. He required that all slaves should be set free; that all commonages should be open to the poor as well as the rich; and that a general pardon should be passed for the late outrages. Whilst he made these demands, he now and then lifted up his sword in a menacing manner; which insolence so raised the indignation of William of Walworth, then mayor of London, attending on the king, that without considering the danger to which he exposed his Majesty, he stunned Tyler with a blow of

his mace; while one of the king's knights riding up, despatched him with his sword. The mutineers, seeing their leader fall, prepared themselves to take revenge; and their bows were now bent for execution; when Richard, though not fifteen years of age, rode up to the rebels, and with admirable presence of mind, cried out, "What, my people, will you then kill your king? Be not concerned for the loss of your leader; I myself will now be your general; follow me into the field, and you shall have whatever you desire." The awed multitude immediately desisted; they followed the king, as if mechanically, into the fields; and there he granted them the same charter that he had before given to their companions.

Richard suffered many disquietudes from the ambitious designs of his uncles, the Dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, but he at length succeeded in freeing himself and his government from the trammels of their authority. The Duke of Hereford, who had been banished the kingdom, on a suspicion of treason, succeeded to the dukedom of Lancaster, on the death of his father, John of Gaunt; and, taking advantage of the king's unpopularity, he returned to England, for the professed purpose of being installed in his new dukedom, but with the real design of possessing himself of the crown. At this critical juncture, Richard was absent on an expedition against Ireland; and though he returned thence immediately on receiving information of Lancaster's designs, he found his subjects so little disposed to support his authority, that he solicited a conference with his disturber. For this purpose, Henry appointed him to meet at a castle within about ten miles of Chester, where he came the next day with his whole army. Richard, who the day

before had been brought thither by the Earl of Northumberland, descrying his rival's approach from the walls, went down to receive him; while the duke, after some ceremony, entered the castle in complete armour; only his head was bare, in compliment to the fallen king. Richard received him with that open air for which he had been remarkable, and kindly bade him welcome. "My lord the king," returned Henry, with a cool respectful bow, "I am come sooner than you appointed, because your people say, that for two-and-twenty years you have governed with rigour and indiscretion. They are very ill satisfied with your conduct; but, if it please God, I will help you to govern them better for the time to come." To this declaration the king made no other answer than this: "Fair cousin, since it pleases you, it pleases us likewise."

But the duke's haughty answer was not the only mortification the unfortunate Richard was to endure. After a short conversation with some of the king's attendants, Henry ordered the king's horses to be brought out of the stable: and two wretched animals being produced, Richard was placed upon one, and his favourite, the Earl of Salisbury, upon the other. In this mean equipage they rode to Chester, and were conveyed to the castle, with a great noise of trumpets, and through a vast concourse of people, who were no way moved at the sight. In this manner he was led triumphantly along, from town to town, amidst multitudes who scoffed at him, and extolled his rival. "Long live the good Duke of Lancaster, our deliverer!" was the general cry; but as for the king, to use the pathetic words of the poet, "none cried, *God bless him.*" Thus, after repeated indignities,

he was confined a close prisoner in the Tower; there, if possible, to undergo a still greater variety of studied insolence, and flagrant contempt. The wretched monarch, humbled in this manner, began to lose the pride of a king with the splendours of royalty, and his spirit sunk to his circumstances. There was no great difficulty, therefore, in inducing him to sign a deed, by which he renounced his crown, as being unqualified for governing the kingdom. Upon this resignation the duke founded his principal claim: but, willing to fortify his pretensions with every appearance of justice, he called a parliament, which was readily brought to approve and confirm his claims. A frivolous charge, consisting of thirty-three articles, was drawn up, and found valid against the king; upon which he was solemnly deposed, and the Duke of Lancaster elected in his stead, by the title of Henry IV. Thus began the contest between the houses of York and Lancaster, which, for many years after, deluged the kingdom with blood, and yet, in the end, contributed to settle and confirm the constitution.

When Richard was deposed, the Earl of Northumberland made a motion in the house of peers, demanding the advice of parliament with regard to the future treatment of the deposed prince. To this they replied, that he should be imprisoned in some secure place, where his friends and partisans should not be able to find him. This was accordingly put in practice; but, while he still continued alive, the usurper could not remain in safety. Indeed, some conspiracies and commotions which followed soon after, induced Henry to wish for Richard's death; in consequence of which, one of those assassins that are found

in every court, ready to commit the most horrid crimes for reward, went down to the place of this unfortunate monarch's confinement, in the castle of Pomfret, and with eight of his followers, rushed into his apartment. The king, concluding that their design was to take away his life, resolved not to fall unrevenged, but to sell it as dearly as he could; wherefore wresting a pole-axe from one of the murderers, he soon laid four of their number dead at his feet. But he was at length overpowered and struck dead by the blow of a pole-axe; although some assert that he was starved in prison. Thus died the unfortunate Richard, in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign. Though his conduct was blameable, yet the punishment he suffered was greater than his offences; and in the end, his sufferings made more converts to his family and cause, than ever his most meritorious actions could have procured them. He left no posterity, either legitimate or otherwise.

It was during this reign that Wickliffe began to propagate his doctrines; and he has the honour of being the first person who had sagacity to see through the errors of the church of Rome, and courage enough to attempt a reformation. He denied the doctrine of the real presence, the supremacy of the church of Rome, and the merit of monastic vows. He maintained that the Scriptures were the sole rule of faith; that the church was dependent on the state; that the clergy ought to possess no estates; and that the numerous ceremonies of the church were hurtful to true piety.

THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

MEMORIAL VERSES.

The fourth Henry-meneppod the government claim'd,
The next, Henry-mumond, at Agincourt fam'd;
Henry the sixth-muladabe bore sway,
 With whom the Lancastrian house pass'd away.

HENRY IV. SON OF JOHN OF GAUNT, DUKE OF
 LANCASTER, FOURTH SON OF EDWARD III.

The fourth Henry-meneppod the government claim'd.

HENRY quickly discovered that the throne of an usurper is a bed of thorns. Scarcely had he seated himself on the throne, when a conspiracy was entered into between the barons to remove him from his seat; an accident, however, gave Henry timely notice of their intentions, and his promptitude and resolution dispelled the storm that threatened him. The French and the Scots taking advantage of the disturbances that harassed the kingdom, again menaced England; and though these evils also were averted by the martial skill of Henry, a second rebellion, at the head of which was the Earl of Northumberland, gave the king fresh disquietude. Indeed, no sooner had one

disaffection been put down, than another succeeded to it; and the reign of the fourth Henry presents little beyond a series of intestine commotions, alike subversive of kingly authority and the people's welfare.

Henry endeavoured to support his wavering authority by paying deference to the clergy; at whose suggestion he cruelly persecuted the followers of Wickliffe. He also conceded more power to the commons' house of parliament, than had usually been vested in that assembly. But while the king thus laboured, not without success, to retrieve the reputation he had lost, his son, Henry, Prince of Wales, seemed equally bent on incurring the public aversion. He became notorious for all kinds of debauchery; and ever chose to be surrounded by a set of wretches, who took pride in committing the most illegal acts, with the prince at their head. The king was not a little mortified at this degeneracy in his eldest son, who seemed entirely forgetful of his station, although he had already exhibited repeated proofs of his valour, conduct, and generosity. Such were the excesses into which he ran, that one of his dissolute companions having been brought to trial before Sir William Gascoign, chief justice of the King's Bench, for some misdemeanour, the prince was so exasperated at the issue of the trial, that he struck the judge in open court. The venerable magistrate, who knew the reverence that was due to his station, behaved with a dignity that became his office, and immediately ordered the prince to be committed to prison. When this transaction was reported to the king, who was an excellent judge of mankind, he could not help exclaiming in a transport, "Happy is the king that has a magistrate

endowed with courage to execute the laws upon such an offender; still more happy, in having a son willing to submit to such a chastisement." This, in fact, is one of the first great instances we read in the English History, of a magistrate doing justice in opposition to power; since, upon many former occasions, we find the judges only ministers of royal caprice.

Henry, whose health had for some time been declining, did not long outlive this transaction. He was subject to fits, which bereaved him, for the time, of his senses; and which, at last, brought on the near approach of death, at Westminster. As his constitution decayed, his fears of losing the crown redoubled even to a childish anxiety. He could not be persuaded to sleep, unless the royal diadem were laid upon his pillow. He resolved to take the cross, and fight the cause of the pilgrims to Jerusalem, and even imparted his designs to a great council, demanding their opinions relative to his intended journey: but his disorder increasing to a violent degree, he was obliged to lay aside his scheme, and to prepare for a journey of much greater importance. In this situation, as he was one day in a violent paroxysm, the Prince of Wales took up the crown and carried it away; but the king soon after recovering his senses, and missing the crown, demanded what had become of it. Being informed that the Prince of Wales had carried it off: "What!" said the king, "would he rob me of my right before my death?" But the prince, just then entering the room, assured his father that he had no such motives in what he had done, went and replaced the crown where he had found it, and having received his father's blessing, dutifully retired. The king was taken with his last fit while he was at his devotions

before the shrine of St. Edward the Confessor in Westminster Abbey; and thence he was carried to the Jerusalem Chamber. When he had recovered from his swoon, perceiving himself in a strange place, he desired to know where he was, and if the apartment had any particular name: being informed that it was called the Jerusalem Chamber, he said, that he then perceived a prophecy was fulfilled, which declared that he should die in Jerusalem. Thus saying, and recommending his soul to his Maker, he soon after expired, in the forty-seventh year of his age, and the fourteenth of his reign.

HENRY V. SON OF HENRY IV.

The next *Henry-mumond* at Agincourt fam'd.

THERE are few readers who have not followed the "merry Hal" through the whole course of his companionship with the facetious Falstaff. Shakspeare has happily delineated the character of this monarch, while Prince of Wales, in the inimitable scenes which he has contrived between "Hal" and that "tun of man." No sooner, however, had Henry ascended the throne, than he abandoned the low associates with whom he had connected himself, and reformed his own behaviour. The persecution of the Wickliffites was zealously pursued in the beginning of this reign; and their great champion and leader, Lord Cobham, after eluding his enemies for some time, at length fell into their hands, and was executed with unheard of barbarities. To draw the public mind from the contemplation of these horrible cruelties, Henry undertook an expedition against France. The usual success

of the English arms was not manifested in the opening of this campaign, and Henry deemed it advisable to retread his steps and leave the country. His retreat was, however, intercepted; and on arriving near the plains of Agincourt, he there discovered the whole French army drawn up to oppose his farther progress.

No situation could be more unfavourable than that in which he then found himself. His army was wasted with disease, the soldiers' spirits worn down with fatigue; they were destitute of provisions, and discouraged by their retreat. Their whole body scarcely amounted to half the number which had disembarked at Harfleur; and these were to sustain the shock of an enemy six times their number, headed by expert generals, and plentifully supplied with provisions. This disparity, as it depressed the English, so it raised the courage of the French in proportion; and so confident were they of success, that they began to treat for the ransom of their prisoners. Henry, on the other hand, though sensible of his extreme danger, did not omit any circumstance that could assist his situation. As the enemy were so much superior, he drew up his army on a narrow ground between two woods, which guarded each flank; and he patiently expected in that position, the attack of the enemy. The Constable of France was at the head of one army; and Henry himself, with Edward Duke of York, commanded the other. For a time both armies, as if afraid to begin, kept silently gazing at each other, neither being willing to break their ranks by making the onset; which Henry perceiving, with a cheerful countenance cried out, "My friends, since they will not begin, it is ours to set them the example: come on, and the Blessed Trinity be our protection!"

Upon this, the whole army set forward with a shout, while the French still continued to wait their approach with intrepidity. The English archers, who had been long famous for their great skill, first let fly a shower of arrows three feet long, which did great execution. The French cavalry advancing to repel these, two hundred bowmen, who lay till then concealed, rising on a sudden, let fly among them, and produced such a confusion, that the archers threw by their arrows, and, rushing in, fell upon them sword in hand. The French at first repulsed the assailants, who were enfeebled by disease but they soon made up the defect by their valour; and, resolving to conquer or die, burst in upon the enemy with such impetuosity, that the French were soon obliged to give way.

In the mean time, a body of English horse, which had been concealed in a neighbouring wood, rushing out, flanked the French infantry, and a general disorder began to ensue. The first line of the enemy being routed, the second line advanced to interrupt the progress of the victory. Henry, therefore, alighted from his horse, presented himself with an undaunted countenance, and at the head of his men, fought on foot, encouraging some, and assisting others. Eighteen French cavaliers, who were resolved to kill him or die in the attempt, rushing from the ranks together, advanced, and one of them stunned the king with a blow of his battle-axe. They then fell upon him in a body; and he was on the point of sinking under their blows, when David Gam, a valiant Welshman, aided by two of his countrymen, came to his assistance, and soon turned the attention of the assailants from the king to themselves, till at length, being overpowered, they fell dead at his feet. Henry had by

this time recovered his senses; and fresh troops advancing to his relief, the eighteen French cavaliers were slain; upon which he knighted the Welshmen who had so valiantly fallen in his defence. The heat of the engagement still increasing, Henry's courage seemed also to increase, and the most dangerous situation was where he fought in person: his brother, who was stunned by a blow, fell at his feet; and while the king was piously endeavouring to succour him, he received another blow himself, which threw him upon his knees. But he soon recovered; and leading on his troops with fresh ardour, they ran headlong upon the enemy, and put them into such disorder, that their leaders could never after bring them to the charge. The Duke of Alençon, who commanded the second line, seeing it fly, resolved, by one desperate stroke, to retrieve the fortune of the day, or fall in the attempt. Wherefore, running up to Henry, and at the same time crying aloud that he was the Duke of Alençon, he discharged such a blow on his head, that it carried off part of the king's helmet; while, in the mean time, Henry, not having been able to ward off the blow, returned it by striking the duke to the ground, and he was soon killed by the surrounding crowd, all the king's efforts to save him proving ineffectual. In this manner the French were overthrown in every part of the field: from their number, being crowded into a very narrow space, they were incapable of either flying or making any resistance; so that they covered the ground with heaps of slain. After all appearance of opposition was over, the English had leisure to make prisoners; and having advanced with uninterrupted success to the open plain, they there saw the remains of the French rear-guard,

which still maintained a show of opposition. At the same time was heard an alarm from behind, which proceeded from a number of peasants who had fallen upon the English baggage, and were putting those who guarded it to the sword. Henry, now seeing the enemy on all sides of him, began to entertain apprehensions from his prisoners, the number of whom exceeded even that of his army. He thought it necessary, therefore, to issue general orders for putting them to death; but, on the discovery of the certainty of his victory, he stopped the slaughter, and was still able to save a great number. This severity tarnished the glory which his victory would otherwise have acquired; but all the heroism of that age is tinged with barbarity.

The French power, though greatly weakened, was not subdued; and it required all the military skill and intrepidity of Henry to preserve the advantages he had obtained, and to make farther progress in his designs. At a time when his glory had nearly reached its summit, and both crowns were just devolved upon him, he was seized with a fistula; a disorder which, from the unskillfulness of the physicians of the times, soon became mortal. Perceiving his distemper incurable, and that his end was approaching, he sent for his brother the Duke of Bedford, the Earl of Warwick, and a few other noblemen whom he had honoured with his confidence; and to them he delivered, in great tranquillity, his last will with regard to the government of his kingdom and family. He recommended his son to their protection; and though he regretted the being unable to accomplish the great object of his ambition, in totally subduing France, yet he expressed great indifference at the approach of

death; he devoutly waited its arrival, and expired with the same intrepidity with which he had lived, in the thirty-fifth year of his age, and the tenth year of his reign.

Henry left by his queen, Catharine of France, only one son, not full nine months old, who succeeded him on the throne; and whose misfortunes, during the course of a long reign, surpassed all the glories and successes of his father.

HENRY VI. SON OF HENRY V.

*Henry the sixth-muladabe bore sway,
With whom the Lancastrian house pass'd away.*

HENRY the sixth was not a year old when, on the death of his father, he was proclaimed king of England and France. The Duke of Bedford was therefore appointed protector to the young monarch, and director of the government during his minority. Bedford endeavoured to accomplish the views of the late king with respect to France; but, for a time, the tide of success set full against the English arms, owing to the following occurrence.

In the village of Domremi, near Vaucouleurs, on the borders of Lorraine, there lived a country girl, about twenty-seven years of age, called Joan of Arc. This girl had been a servant at a small inn, and in that humble station had submitted to those hardy employments which fit the body for the fatigues of war. She was of an irreproachable life, and had hitherto testified none of those enterprising qualities which displayed themselves soon after. She contentedly fulfilled the duties of her situation, and was remark-

able only for her modesty and love of religion. But the miseries of her country seemed to have been one of the greatest objects of her compassion and regard. Her king expelled from his native throne, her country laid in blood, and strangers executing unnumbered rapines before her eyes, were sufficient to excite her resentment, and to warm her heart with a desire of redress. Her mind, inflamed by these objects, and brooding with melancholy steadfastness upon them, began to feel several impulses, which she was willing to mistake for the inspirations of Heaven. Convinced of the reality of her own admonitions, she had recourse to Baudricourt, governor of Vaucouleurs, and informed him of her destination by Heaven to free her native country from its fierce invaders. Baudricourt treated her at first with some neglect; but her importunities at length prevailed: and, willing to make a trial of her pretensions, he gave her some attendants, who conducted her to the French court, which at that time resided at Chinon.

The French court were probably sensible of the weakness of her pretensions; but they were willing to make use of every artifice to support their declining fortunes. It was therefore given out, that Joan was actually inspired; that she was able to discover the king among the number of his courtiers, although he had laid aside all the distinctions of his authority; that she had told him such secrets as were only known to himself; and that she had demanded, and minutely described, a sword in the church of St. Catharine de Fierbois, which she had never seen. In this manner, the minds of the vulgar being prepared for her appearance, she was armed *cap-à-piè*, mounted on a charger, and shown in that martial dress to the people.

She was then brought before the doctors of the university; and they, tinctured with the credulity of the times, or willing to second the imposture, declared that she had actually received her commission from above.

When the preparations for her mission were completely blazoned, their next aim was to send her against the enemy. The English were at that time besieging the city of Orleans, the last resource of Charles, and every thing promised them a speedy surrender. Joan undertook to raise the siege; and to render herself still more remarkable, girded herself with the miraculous sword, of which she had before such extraordinary notices. Thus equipped, she ordered all the soldiers to confess themselves before they set out; she displayed in her hand a consecrated banner, and assured the troops of certain success. Such confidence on her side soon raised the spirits of the French army; and even the English, who pretended to despise her efforts, felt themselves secretly influenced with the terrors of her mission. A supply of provisions was to be conveyed into the town; Joan, at the head of some French troops, covered the embarkation, and entered Orleans at the head of the convoy, which she had safely protected. While she was leading her troops along, a dead silence and astonishment reigned among the English; and they regarded with religious awe that temerity which they thought nothing but supernatural assistance could inspire. But they were soon roused from their state of amazement by a sally from the town; Joan led on the besieged, bearing the sacred standard in her hand, encouraging them with her words and actions, bringing them up to the trenches, and overpowering the besiegers in their

own redoubts. In the attack of one of the forts, she was wounded in the neck with an arrow; but instantly pulling out the weapon with her own hands, and getting the wound quickly dressed, she hastened back to head the troops, and to plant her victorious banner on the ramparts of the enemy. These successes continuing, the English found that it was impossible to resist troops animated by such superior energy; and Suffolk, who conducted the attack, thinking that it might prove extremely dangerous to remain any longer in the presence of such a courageous and victorious enemy, raised the siege, and retreated with all imaginable precaution.

The success of Joan's imposture had carried both her and her adherents beyond the bounds of prudence. The French considered that they were fighting under a supernatural leader, and were ready to undertake any enterprise, however hazardous and unpromising. Joan, also, had acquired so great confidence in her powers, that she hesitated not to throw herself into the town of Compeigne, then being besieged by the English. In one of the sallies which she thence made, she found herself obliged to retire; but as she was attempting to follow her soldiers into the garrison, the gates were suddenly closed, and she fell into the hands of the enemy.

Nothing could exceed the joy of the besiegers, in having taken a person who had been so long a terror to their arms. The service of *Te Deum* was publicly celebrated on this occasion; and it was hoped that the capture of this extraordinary person would restore the English to their former victories and successes. The Duke of Bedford was no sooner informed of her being taken, than he purchased her of the

COUNT Vendome, who had made her his prisoner, and ordered her to be committed to close confinement. The credulity of both nations was at that time so great, that nothing was too absurd to gain belief that coincided with their passions. As Joan, but a little before, from her successes, was regarded as a saint, she was now, upon her captivity, considered as a sorceress, forsaken by the demon who had granted her a fallacious and temporary assistance. Accordingly, it was resolved in council to send her to Rouen, to be tried for witchcraft; and the Bishop of Beauvais, a man wholly devoted to the English interest, presented a petition against her for that purpose. The university of Paris was so mean as to join in the same request. Several prelates, among whom the Cardinal of Winchester was the only Englishman, were appointed as her judges. They held their court in Rouen, where Henry then resided; and the Maid, clothed in her former military apparel, but loaded with irons, was produced before this tribunal. Her behaviour there no way disgraced her former gallantry; she betrayed neither weakness nor womanish submission; but appealed to God and the pope for the truth of her former revelations. In the issue, she was found guilty of heresy and witchcraft, and sentenced to be burned alive, the common punishment for such offences.

While misfortunes had crowded on the English arms in France, the government at home was harassed by the turbulent spirit of the factious barons. The king, naturally weak and imbecile, had fallen into a distemper, which so greatly increased his infirmities of mind, that the Duke of York was appointed lieu-

tenant and protector of the kingdom. On his recovery, the king found himself stripped of all authority, and retaining nothing of a king but the name. Roused by Margaret, his queen, Henry endeavoured to regain his lost power; and the contentions which ensued plunged the nation into all the aggravated horrors of civil strife. Several battles were fought between the contending parties with various success; in one of which the Duke of York was slain. His son Edward, however, amply revenged his death, and boldly prosecuted the undertaking which his father had begun. By the assistance of the Earl of Warwick, the young duke was placed upon the throne, and the unfortunate Henry consigned to a prison.

To reclaim Edward from the licentious and disgraceful course he began to pursue, Warwick advised him to marry, and actually went over to France to negotiate in this particular. While he was absent, however, Edward married the Lady Grey; and thus giving Warwick just cause of offence, the latter determined to resent it by removing him from a throne to which he had been elevated principally by his means. Henry was now therefore taken from his dungeon to be placed on the throne; but the defeat and death of Warwick at the battle of St. Albans, once more turned the day against him. A subsequent and last effort on the part of Margaret his queen having failed to retrieve his affairs, the die was for ever cast for his ruin.

The queen and the prince were taken prisoners in this last battle, and brought into the presence of Edward. The young prince appeared before the conqueror with undaunted majesty; and being asked, in an insulting manner, how he dared to invade

England without leave, the young prince, more mindful of his high birth than of his ruined fortune, replied, "I entered the dominions of my father, to revenge his injuries, and redress my own." The barbarous Edward, enraged at his intrepidity, struck him on the mouth with his gauntlet; and this served as a signal for farther brutality; the Dukes of Gloucester and Clarence, and other courtiers, rushing on the unarmed youth at once, stabbed him to the heart with their daggers. To complete the tragedy, Henry himself, who had long been the passive spectator of all these horrors, was now thought unfit to live. The Duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard the Third, entering his chamber alone, murdered him in cold blood. Of all those who were taken, few were suffered to survive but Margaret herself. Edward perhaps expected that she would be ransomed by the king of France; and in this point he was not deceived, as that monarch paid fifty thousand crowns for her freedom. This extraordinary woman, after having sustained the cause of her husband in twelve battles, after having survived her friends, fortunes, and children, died a few years after in privacy in France, very miserable indeed; but with few claims to our pity, except her courage and her distresses.

THE HOUSE OF YORK.

MEMORIAL VERSES.

Edward-mucomd took the sceptre of power;
Edward the fifth was destroyed in the Tower:
The third Richard-muindo the kingdom did guide.
 Till by Richmond, in battle at Bosworth, he died.

EDWARD IV. DESCENDED FROM THE THIRD SON OF EDWARD III.

Edward-mucomd took the sceptre of power.

EDWARD the fourth having made his way to the throne by war, havoc, and devastation, vainly expected to establish his throne by acts of tyranny and cruelty. Of all people, however, the English are the most truly compassionate; and a government raised upon barbarity never yet wanted enemies among them. Nothing could have been more ill-judged than any attempts to govern such a people by the hands of the executioner; and the leaders of either faction seemed insensible of this truth. Edward, on being freed from great enemies, turned his attention to those of lesser note; so that the gibbets were hung with his adversaries, and their estates confiscated to his use.

The principal agent in seating Edward on the throne, was Guy Earl of Warwick, a nobleman of great valour, but of the most fiery and impetuous temper. The services he had rendered the king, induced him to think that the capricious monarch would submit himself entirely to his guidance in all matters. From motives of state policy, the Earl had advised Edward to contract a marriage with Bona of Savoy, sister of the queen of France; and a negotiation to this end had, with the consent of Edward, been brought to a successful issue by Warwick. During the earl's absence, however, Edward ventured to espouse the lady Elizabeth Grey, whose husband had been slain at the battle of St. Albans. When Warwick returned from France, and discovered that his negotiations were thus rendered fruitless, he became ungovernable in his rage, and declared that as he had been in a good measure the means of establishing the king, he would now be the instrument of his degradation. The earl immediately withdrew from the court, and raised a powerful force against Edward, who, revelling in pleasures, had little leisure or inclination to adopt the necessary precautionary measures for securing himself on the throne. Edward was quickly deposed, and the unfortunate Henry once more replaced on the regal seat. This revolution was however of short duration. The young king, who had retired to France, soon returned, bringing with him a sufficient power to chastise the insolence of Warwick and recover his possessions. A decisive battle took place between the parties at Barnet, in the neighbourhood of London; in which the arms of Edward prevailed, and the earl was slain. After this victory, Queen Margaret and the prince her son,

were brought into the presence of the conqueror, who, enraged at the bold and lofty demeanour of young Henry, caused him to be assassinated in his presence. At the instigation of the Duke of Gloucester (afterwards Richard the third), Edward was induced to visit severely the offence of his brother the Duke of Clarence, in having for a time aided the Earl of Warwick in his traitorous designs. Clarence being placed on his trial, was found guilty; and being allowed to choose the manner in which he would die, he was privately drowned in a butt of Malmsey, in the Tower; a whimsical choice, implying that he had an extraordinary passion for that liquor.

The rest of Edward's life was spent in riot and debauchery; in gratifications that are pleasing only to the narrow mind; in useless treaties with France, in which he was ever deceived. His parliament, become merely the ministers of his will, consented, at his request, to a war with France, at a time when his alliances upon the continent were so broken that it was impossible for it to succeed. The people seemed equally pleased with the prospect of an expedition, which, without serving, could only tend to impoverish the nation; and great hopes were revived of once more conquering France. While all were thus occupied with hope or private distrust, and while Edward was employed in making preparations for that enterprise, he was seized with a distemper of which he expired, in the forty-first year of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign.

The only thing which confers distinction on this reign, is the introduction of Printing into England by William Caxton.

EDWARD V. SON OF EDWARD IV.

Edward the fifth was destroyed in the Tower.

THE death of Edward the fourth threatened to involve the nation once more in all the horrors of a civil war. The Duke of Gloucester, however, having been made protector of the realm, and guardian over the late king's children, had sufficient address to render the opposing party powerless. But the ambitious views of Gloucester now began to develop themselves; and instead of governing as regent during the minority of young Edward, he formed the design of immediately transferring the crown to his own head. Supported by powerful adherents, he quickly found means to effect the destruction of all who had been devoted to the late king, and who were inclined to favour the cause of the young prince.

Hitherto the protector had professed great regard for the sons of Edward, but he now began to throw off the mask, and to aspire more openly to the throne. He had previously gained over the Duke of Buckingham, a man of talents and power, by bribes and promises of future favour. This nobleman, therefore, used all his arts to infuse into the people an opinion of the bastardy of the late king, and also that of his children. Dr. Shaw, a popular preacher, was hired to harangue the people from St. Paul's cross to the same purpose; where, after having displayed the incontinence of the queen, and insisting on the illegality of the young king's title, he enlarged on the virtues of the protector. "It is the protector," cried he, "who carries in his face the image of virtue, and the marks of a true descent. He alone can

restore the lost honour and glory of the nation." It was hoped upon this occasion, that some of the populace would have cried out, "Long live king Richard!" but the audience remaining silent, the Duke of Buckingham undertook to persuade them in his turn. His speech was copious upon the calamities of the last reign, and the bastardy of the present race; he saw only one method of shielding off the miseries that threatened the state, which was, to elect the protector; but he seemed apprehensive that he would never be prevailed on to accept of a crown, accompanied with such difficulty and danger. He next asked his auditors, whether they would have the protector for their king; but was mortified to find that a total silence ensued. The mayor, who was in the secret, willing to relieve him in this embarrassment, observed, that the citizens were not accustomed to be harangued by a person of such quality, and would only give an answer to their recorder. This officer, therefore, repeated the duke's speech; but the people continuing still silent, "This is strange obstinacy!" cried the duke; "we only require of you, in plain terms, to declare whether or not you will have the Duke of Gloucester for your king; as the lords and commons have sufficient power without your concurrence." After all these efforts, some of the meanest apprentices, incited by the protector's and Buckingham's servants, raised a feeble cry of "God save king Richard!" The mob at the door, a despicable class of people, ever pleased with novelty, repeated the cry, and throwing up their caps, repeated, "A Richard! a Richard!"

In this manner the duke took advantage of this faint approbation; and the next day, at the head of

the mayor and aldermen, went to wait upon the protector, at Baynard's Castle, with offers of the crown. When Richard was told that a great multitude was waiting at the door, with his usual hypocrisy, he appeared to the crowd in a gallery, between two bishops, and at first seemed quite surprised at such a concourse of people. But when he was informed that their business was to offer him the crown, he declared against accepting it; alleging his love for the late king, his brother, his affection for the children under his care, and his own insufficiency. Buckingham, seeming displeased with this answer, muttered some words to himself, but at length plainly told him, "that it was needless to refuse, for the people were bent on making him king; that they had now proceeded too far to recede; and therefore, in case of his refusal, were determined to offer the crown where it would meet a more ready acceptance." This was a resolution which the protector's tenderness for his people would not suffer him to see effected. "I perceive," said he in a modest tone, "that the nation is resolved to load me with preferments, unequal to my abilities or my choice; yet, since it is my duty to obey the dictates of a free people, I will, though reluctantly, accept their petition. I therefore, from this moment, enter upon the government of England and France, with a resolution to defend the one and subdue the other." The crowd being thus dismissed, each man returned home, pondering upon the proceedings of the day, and making such remarks as passion, interest, or party, might suggest.

RICHARD III. BROTHER OF EDWARD IV.

*The third Richard-muindo the kingdom did guide,
Till by Richmond, in battle at Bosworth, he died.*

ONE crime ever draws on another; justice will revolt against fraud, and usurpation requires security. The people began to see through the designs of Gloucester, and clamoured loudly against the injustice done to the sons of Edward. Richard quickly perceived that he could hope for no security so long as the young princes were living; he therefore revolved the means of their destruction. "With him, ill deeds but thought upon, were half performed:" he soon found a ready instrument for the accomplishment of his cruel purposes in the person of Sir James Tyrrel. This man, associating himself with two ruffians named Deighton and Forest, effected the death of the princes, while sleeping in their apartment at the Tower, by smothering them with the pillows of the bed on which they lay. Their dead bodies were then buried by Richard's order, deep in the ground, at the stair foot, beneath a heap of stones. Historians differ in opinion respecting the death of the princes: some are inclined to absolve Richard from the crime of blood; but all circumstances considered, it is most probable that their destruction was effected by Richard's orders, and under his directions.

Richard now thought that the minds of the people would be imperceptibly drawn to an acquiescence in his government; but he quickly found that his throne could be secured only by constant warfare, and wearisome precaution. His adviser and great assistant, the Duke of Buckingham, was the first to fall

from him: this nobleman, taking disgust at being refused the confiscated lands of the earldom of Hereford, raised an army against the usurper and threatened to shake him on his throne. Richard, who, amidst all his vices, discovered the one kingly virtue of warlike daring and military skill, lost no time in levying a force sufficient to overwhelm the party of Buckingham. Defeated in his designs, the duke fled for refuge to the house of one Banister, who had formerly been a servant of his household: this man, overcome by the prospect of reward, betrayed his former master into the hands of Richard, who immediately caused him to undergo the mockery of a trial, which ended in his execution on a public scaffold.

In the mean time the Earl of Richmond appeared on the coast of England; but, finding his hopes frustrated by the failure of Buckingham, he hastily set sail again, and returned to Bretagne. Thus every concurrence seemed to promise Richard a long possession of the crown: however, the authority of parliament was still wanting to give sanction to the injustice of his proceedings; but in those times of ignorance and guilt, that was easily procured. An act was passed, confirming the illegitimacy of Edward's children; an act of attainder was also confirmed against Henry Earl of Richmond; and all the usurper's wishes seemed to be the aim of their deliberations. One thing was wanting to complete Richard's security, which was the death of his rival: to effect this, he sent ambassadors to the Duke of Bretagne, seemingly upon business of public nature; but, in reality, to treat with Landois, that prince's minister, to deliver up the earl. The minister was base enough to enter into the negociation; but Richmond, having had timely notice, fled into France,

and just reached the confines of that kingdom, when he found that he was pursued by those who intended to give him up to his rival.

Richard, thus finding his attempts to seize his enemy's person unsuccessful, became every day more cruel as his power grew more precarious. Among those who chiefly excited his jealousy, was the lord Stanley, who was married to the mother of Henry; and to keep him steadfast in obedience, he took his son as a hostage for the father's behaviour. He now also resolved to get rid of his present queen, Anne, to make room for a match with his niece, the princess Elizabeth, by whose alliance he hoped to cover the injustice of his claims. The lady whom he wished to get rid of was the widow of the young Prince of Wales, whom he had murdered with his own hands at Tewkesbury; and it is no slight indication of the barbarity of the times, that the widow should accept for her second lord the murderer of her former husband. But she was now rewarded for that instance of inhumanity, as Richard treated her with so much pride and indifference, that she died of grief, according to his ardent expectation. However, his wishes were not crowned with success in his applications to Elizabeth; the mother, indeed, was not averse to the match; but the princess herself treated his vile addresses with contempt and detestation.

Amidst the perplexity caused by this unexpected refusal, he received information that the Earl of Richmond was once more making preparations to land in England, and assert his claims to the crown. Richard, who knew not in what quarter he might expect the invader, had taken post at Nottingham, in the centre of the kingdom; and had given commissions

to several of his creatures, to oppose the enemy wherever he should land. Upon news of his descent, Richard, who was possessed of courage and military conduct, his only virtues, instantly resolved to meet his antagonist, and decide their mutual pretensions by a battle. In a few days both armies drew near Bosworth field, in Leicestershire, to determine a contest that had now for thirty years filled the kingdom with civil commotions, and deluged its plains with blood. The army of Richard was above double that of Henry ; but the chief confidence of the latter lay in the friendship and secret assurances of Lord Stanley, who, with a body of seven thousand men, hovered near the field of battle, and declined engaging on either side.

Richard, perceiving his enemy advance, drew up his army, consisting of about thirteen thousand men, in order of battle ; he gave the command of the van-guard to the Duke of Norfolk, while he led the main body himself, with the crown on his head, designing by this either to inspire the enemy with awe, or to render himself conspicuous to his own army. The van of Richmond's army, consisting of archers, was commanded by John Earl of Oxford ; Sir Gilbert Talbot led the right wing ; Sir John Savage the left ; while the earl himself, accompanied by his uncle, the Earl of Pembroke, placed himself in the main body. Lord Stanley, in the mean time, posted himself on one flank, between the two armies, while his brother took his station on the other. Richard, seeing him thus in a situation equally convenient for joining either army, immediately sent him orders to unite himself to the main body ; which the other refusing, he gave instant orders for beheading Lord Stanley's son, whom he still kept as a hostage. He was per-

suaded, however, to postpone the execution till after the fight; and attending to the more important transactions of the day, he directed the trumpets to sound to battle. The two armies approaching each other, the battle began with a shower of arrows, and soon the adverse fronts were seen closing. This was what Lord Stanley had for some time expected, who immediately profiting by the occasion, joined the line of Richmond, and thus turned the fortune of the day. This measure, so unexpected to the men, though not to their leaders, had a proportioned effect on both armies; it inspired unusual courage into Henry's soldiers, and threw Richard's into confusion. The intrepid tyrant, perceiving the danger of his situation, spurred his horse into the thickest of the fight, while Richmond quitted his station behind, to encourage his troops by his presence in the front. Richard, perceiving him, was desirous of ending all by one blow; and with irresistible fury flew through thousands to attack him. He slew Sir William Brandon, the earl's standard bearer, who attempted to stop his career. Sir John Cheyne, having taken Brandon's place, was thrown by him to the ground. Richmond, in the mean time, stood firm to oppose him; but they were separated by the interposing crowd. Richard, thus disappointed, went by his presence to inspire his troops at another quarter; but at length perceiving his army every where yielding or flying, and now finding that all was gone, he rushed with a loud shout into the midst of the enemy, and there met a better death than his crimes and cruelties deserved. After the battle, his body was found stripped among a heap of slain, covered with wounds, and the eyes frightfully staring: it was thrown across a horse, *the head hanging down on one side and the legs on the*

other, and thus carried to Leicester. It lay there two days exposed to public view, and then was buried without farther ceremony.

Richard's crown, being found by one of Henry's soldiers on the field of battle, was immediately placed upon the head of the conqueror; while the whole army, as if inspired with one voice, cried out, "Long live king Henry!"

Thus ended the bloody reign of Richard; and by his death, the race of the Plantagenet kings, who had been in possession of the crown during the space of three hundred and thirty years, became extinct. Thus ended also the contests between the houses of York and Lancaster, by which most of the ancient families of the kingdom were extinguished, and more than a hundred thousand men lost their lives, either by the sword or the executioner.

REMARKS ON THE WARS BETWEEN THE TWO HOUSES.

THE dissensions between the houses of York and Lancaster, had for some time reduced the kingdom to a state of savage barbarity. Laws, arts, and commerce, which had before emitted some feeble gleams, were entirely neglected for the practice of arms; and to be a conqueror was sufficient, in the eyes of the brutal people, to stand for every other virtue. The English had as yet but little idea of legal subordination; nor could they give any applause to those who attempted to cultivate the arts of peace, the whole of their study and education being turned for war. The ferocity of the people to each other was incredible. However, the women, whatever part they took in dis-

turbances of the government, were exempted from capital punishments; nor were they ever put to death, except when convicted of witchcraft or poisoning. As for the clergy, they were entirely distinct from the laity, both in customs, laws, and learning. They were governed by the code of civil law, drawn up in the times of Justinian; while the laity were held by the common law, which had been traditional from times immemorial in the country. The clergy, whatever may be said to the contrary, understood and wrote Latin fluently; while the laity, on the other hand, understood nothing of Latin, but applied themselves wholly to the French language, when they aspired at the character of a polite education. The clergy, as a body distinct from the state, little interested themselves in civil polity; and perhaps they were not displeased to see the laity, whom they considered less as fellow-subjects than rivals for power, weakening themselves by continual contests, and thus rendering themselves more easily manageable. In short, as there was no knowledge of government among the individuals, but what totally resulted from power, the state was like a feverish constitution, ever subject to ferment and disorder. France, indeed, had served for some time as a drain for the peccant humours; but when that was no longer open, the disorders of the constitution seemed daily to increase, and vented themselves at last in all the horrors of a long-continued civil war.

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

MEMORIAL VERSES OF KINGS OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

Henry the seventh-mudiso came on ;
The eighth Henry-mestopod then sat on the throne.
Edward the sixth-mosurd afterwards came,
 And *Mary-messendo*, who kindled the flame,
 In which protestant martyrs their being laid down,
 Till *messid-Eliza* in turn took the crown.

HENRY VII. SON OF EDMUND TUDOR, EARL OF RICH-
 MOND, AND MARGARET, DESCENDED FROM JOHN
 OF GAUNT.

Henry the seventh-mudiso came on.

AFTER having presented the reader with a frightful train of treasons, stratagems, murders, and usurpations, we are beginning to emerge into a time of greater importance and glory. We are now to view the conduct of a monarch, who if not the best, was at least the most useful of any that ever sat upon the English throne. We are now to behold a nation of tumult reduced to civil subordination ; an insolent and sac-

tious aristocracy humbled, wise laws enacted, commerce restored, and the peaceful arts made amiable to a people, for whom war alone heretofore had charms. Hitherto we have only beheld the actions of a barbarous nation, obeying with reluctance, and governed by caprice: but, henceforward, we may discover more refined politics, and better concerted schemes; human wisdom, as if roused from her lethargy of thirteen hundred years, exerting all her efforts to subdue the natural ferocity of the people, and to introduce permanent felicity.

Henry had scarcely seated himself on the throne, when he determined to marry the princess Elizabeth, daughter of Edward the fourth, and thus put a final period to the contests between the houses of York and Lancaster, by rendering them ever after incapable of distinction. As good part of the miseries and misfortunes of his predecessors had arisen from their poverty, Henry took especial care to secure for his own use the various confiscations of the attainted nobles and others; well knowing that money would at any time enable him to turn the scale of power in his own favour.

Some disturbances were excited in the beginning of this reign by one Lambert Simnel, who was tutored to counterfeit the person of the son of the Duke of Clarence, who was drowned in the Tower.

Henry could not help feeling more uneasiness at this barefaced imposture than it seemed to deserve: but the penetrating monarch saw that his mother-in-law was at the bottom of it; and he dreaded the fierce inquietude of her temper. He was resolved therefore to take the advice of his council upon this occasion; *and they*, after due deliberation, determined upon

confining the old queen to a monastery ; but, to wipe off the imputation of treason from one so nearly allied to the crown, it was given out that she was thus punished for having formerly delivered up the princess, her daughter, to Richard. The people, as usual, murmured at the severity of her treatment ; but the king, unmindful of their idle clamours, persisted in his resolution ; and she remained in confinement till her death, which did not happen till several years after. The next measure was to shew Warwick, the true son of the Duke of Clarence, to the people. In consequence of this he was taken from the Tower, and led through the principal streets of London ; after which he was conducted in solemn procession to St. Paul's, where great numbers were assembled to see him. Still, however, they proceeded in Dublin to honour their pretended monarch ; and he was crowned with great solemnity, in presence of the Earl of Kildare, the chancellor, and the other officers of state. Such impositions upon the people were very frequent at that time, in several parts of Europe. Lorrain, Naples, and Portugal, had their impostors, who continued to deceive for a long time without detection. In fact, the inhabitants of every country were so much confined within their own limits, and knew so little of what was passing in the rest of the world, that any distant story might be propagated, how improbable soever. In this manner King Simnel, being now joined by Lord Lovel and other malcontents of distinction, resolved to pass over into England ; and accordingly landed in Lancashire, whence he marched to York, expecting that the country would rise and join him as he marched along. But in this he was deceived : the people, unwilling to unite with a body of German

and Irish troops, by whom he was supported, and kept in awe by the king's reputation, remained in tranquillity, or gave all their assistance to the royal cause. The Earl of Lincoln, therefore, a disaffected lord, to whom the command of the rebel army was given, finding no hopes but in speedy victory, was determined to bring the contest to a short issue. The opposite armies met at Stoke, in the county of Nottingham, and fought a battle, which was more bloody, and more obstinately disputed, than could have been expected from the inequality of their forces. But victory at length declared in favour of the king, and it proved decisive. Lincoln perished in the field of battle; and Lovel being never more heard of, it was supposed he shared the same fate. Simnel and his tutor Simon were made prisoners; and four thousand of the common men fell in battle. Simon, being a priest, could not be tried by the civil power, and was only committed to close confinement. Simnel was too contemptible to excite the king's fears or resentment; he was pardoned, and made a scullion in the king's kitchen, whence he was afterwards advanced to the rank of falconer, in which mean employment he died.

Henry having concluded an advantageous treaty with France, had reason to flatter himself with the prospect of long tranquillity, when another imposture, similar to that of Lambert Simnel, was circulated for the purpose of harassing his government, and producing disaffection among his subjects.

The old Duchess of Burgundy, whose court was the usual retreat for all parties obnoxious to the English government, determined to disturb that throne which she could not subvert. She first procured a report to

be spread, that the young Duke of York, said to have been murdered in the Tower, was still living; and finding the rumour greedily received, she soon produced a young man who assumed his name and character. The person pitched upon to sustain this part, was one Osbeck, or Warbeck, the son of a converted Jew, who had visited England during the reign of Edward IV., where he had this son, named Peter, but corrupted after the Flemish manner, into Peterkin or Perkin. It was by some believed that Edward, among his other amorous adventures, had a secret correspondence with Warbeck's wife, which might account for a striking resemblance between young Perkin and that monarch. Perkin, following the fortunes of his father, had travelled for many years from place to place; so that his birth and circumstances became thereby unknown, and difficult to be traced by the most diligent inquiry. The variety of his adventures might have contributed to assist the natural sagacity and versatility of his disposition; as he seemed to be a youth capable of sustaining any part, or any assumed character. The Duchess of Burgundy found this youth entirely suited to her purposes; and her lessons, instructing him to personate the Duke of York, were easily learned and strongly retained by a youth of such quick apprehension. In short, his graceful air, his courtly address, his easy manners, and elegant conversation, were capable of imposing upon all but such as were conscious of the imposture.

The kingdom of Ireland, which still retained its attachments to the house of York, was pitched upon as the proper place for Perkin's first appearance, as it before had favoured the claims of Simnel. He landed at Cork; and immediately assuming the name of

Richard Plantagenet, drew to himself numerous partizans among the credulous people. He wrote letters to the Earls of Desmond and Kildare inviting them to join his party; he dispersed everywhere the strange intelligence of his escape from his uncle Richard's cruelty; and men, fond of every thing new and wonderful, began to make him the general subject of their discourse, and even the object of their favour. From Ireland his fame soon spread over France; and Charles sent Perkin an invitation to his court, where he received him with all the marks of consideration that were due to his supposed dignity. The youth, no way dazzled by his elevation, supported the prepossession that was spread abroad in his favour; so that England itself soon began to give credit to his pretensions; while Sir George Nevil, Sir John Taylor, and above a hundred other gentlemen, went to Paris to pay him homage, and make an offer of their services. Upon the peace being shortly after concluded between France and England, the impostor was obliged to make his residence at the court of his old patroness, the Duchess of Burgundy; and the interview between these conscious deceivers was truly ridiculous. The duchess affected the utmost ignorance of his pretensions, and even put on the appearance of distrust, having, as she said, been already deceived by Simnel. She seemed to examine all his assertions with the most scrupulous diffidence, put many particular questions to him, affected astonishment at his answers, and at last, after long and severe scrutiny, burst out into joy and admiration at his delivery, acknowledging him as her nephew, as the true image of Edward, and legitimate successor to the English throne. She immediately assigned him an equipage

suitable to his pretensions; appointed him a guard of thirty halberdiers; and on all occasions honoured him with the appellation of the White Rose of England.

The English, prone to revolt, gave credit to all these absurdities; while the young man's prudence, conversation, and deportment, served to confirm what their disaffection and credulity had begun. All such as were disgusted with the king prepared to join him; and even some of those who had been in favour with Henry, and had contributed to place him on the throne, thinking their services could never be sufficiently repaid, now privately abetted the imposture, and became heads of the conspiracy. These were joined by numbers of the inferior class, some greedy of novelty, some blindly attached to their leaders, and some induced by their desperate fortunes to wish for any change.

By the vigilance and promptitude of Henry, young Perkin's hopes were frustrated in England; he therefore passed over into Scotland. In that country his luck seemed greater than in England. James the Fourth, the then monarch, received him with great cordiality; he was seduced to believe the story of his birth and adventures; and he carried his confidence so far, as to give him in marriage Lady Catherine Gordon, daughter to the Earl of Huntley, and a near kinswoman of his own; a young lady eminent for virtue as well as beauty. Not content with these instances of favour, he resolved to attempt setting him on the throne of England. Once more the adventurer's schemes were disconcerted by the activity of Henry; and he was obliged to seek a shelter in the wilds and fastnesses of Ireland. He was afterwards

led to make another attempt in England; when the sudden appearance of Henry caused his heart to fail him, and, deserting his followers, he took refuge in the monastery of Beaulieu. His affairs being altogether desperate, he embraced the king's offer of pardon without hesitation, and quitted the sanctuary. Henry being desirous of seeing him, he was brought to court, and conducted through the streets of London in a kind of mock triumph, amidst the derision and insults of the populace, which he bore with the most dignified resignation. He was then compelled to sign a confession of his former life and conduct, which was printed and dispersed throughout the kingdom; but it was so defective and contradictory, that instead of explaining the pretended imposture, it left it still more doubtful than before; and this youth's real pretensions are to this very day an object of dispute among the learned. Perkin, having escaped from the custody in which he had been placed, again took sanctuary in the monastery of Shene. Henry perceiving that his restless spirit was irreclaimable, caused opportunities to be afforded him of corresponding with the Earl of Warwick; thereby intending to work the destruction of both parties. The event answered the king's wishes: a colourable pretence was afforded for the execution of Perkin at Tyburn, and the beheading of Warwick, the last male branch of the Plantagenets, on Tower Hill. Henry's chief aim was to abridge the power of the nobility and clergy, and to establish the freedom of the commonalty, who had not as yet arrived at any participation in the privileges of the Great Charter, but were still regarded as vassals and retainers of the barons. Before this time all towns owed their

origin to some strong castle in the immediate neighbourhood, around which victuallers and artificers erected their dwellings, and furnished the lord and his attendants with what they might require; as well the protection which the castle afforded them was an additional inducement to draw them within its vicinage. Henry, by promoting a spirit of commerce, opened a field of enterprise to the people; by inviting them to build towns in situations favourable to trade, he was enabled to destroy the remains of the Feudal System, by which the lower classes had been so long oppressed. Since the time of Alfred, England had not seen such another king. He rendered his subjects powerful and happy, and wrought a greater change in the manners of the people, than it was possible to suppose could be effected in so short a time. If he had any fault that deserves to be marked with reproach, it was that, having begun his reign with economy, as he grew old his desires seemed to change their object from the use of money to the pleasure of hoarding it. But he ought in this to be pardoned, as he only saved for the public; the royal coffers being then the only treasury of the state; and in proportion to the king's finances, the public might be said to be either rich or indigent.

Henry died with the gout in his stomach, in the fifty-second year of his age, and the twenty-third of his useful reign.

About this time, all Europe, as well as England, seemed to rouse from the long lethargy in which it had continued for above twelve hundred years. France, Spain, Portugal, and Sweden, enjoyed excellent monarchs, who encouraged and protected the rising arts, and spread the means of happiness.

The Portuguese sailed round the Cape of Good Hope, under the command of Vasquez de Gama; and the Spaniards under the conduct of Columbus, had made the discovery of the new world of America. It was by accident only that Henry had not a considerable share in these great naval discoveries; for Columbus, after meeting with many repulses from the courts of Portugal and Spain, sent his brother Bartholomew into England, in order to explain his projects to the king, and to crave his protection for the execution of them. Henry invited Columbus to England; but his brother, in returning, being taken by pirates, was detained in his voyage; and Columbus, in the mean time, succeeding with Isabella, happily effected his enterprise. Henry was not discouraged by this disappointment; he fitted out Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian, dwelling at Bristol, and sent him westward in search of new countries. This adventurer discovered the main land of America to the north; then sailed southward, along the coast, and discovered Newfoundland and other countries; but returned without making any settlement. The king, soon after, expended fourteen thousand pounds in building one ship, called the *Great Harry*. This was, properly speaking, the first ship in the English navy. Before this period, when the king wanted a fleet, he had no other expedient but to hire ships from the merchants.

HENRY VIII. SON OF HENRY VII.

The eighth Henry-mestopod then sat on the throne.

No prince ever came to the throne with a conjuncture of circumstances more in his favour than

Henry VIII., who, now in the eighteenth year of his age, undertook the government of the kingdom. His prudent father left him a peaceful throne, a well-stored treasury, and an undisputed succession. By his father's side he claimed from the house of Lancaster, and by his mother's that of York. He was in friendship with all the powers of Europe, and his subjects were every day growing more powerful and more wealthy; commerce and arts had for some time been introduced into the kingdom, and the English seemed willing to give them a favourable reception. The young king himself was beautiful in person, expert in polite exercises, open and liberal in his air, and loved by all his subjects. The old king, who was himself a scholar, had him instructed in all the learning of the times; so that he was an adept in school divinity before the age of eighteen.

Henry prosecuted a war with France, but his military talents were far from shining; and after some few advantages had been obtained over the French monarch, a peace was concluded between the two kingdoms. The success of the English arms in Scotland was more decisive. The Scots taking advantage of Henry's absence, made an irruption into the south country, under the command of James their king. The Earl of Surrey led against them an army of twenty-six thousand men, and in the memorable battle of Flodden-field overcame them with great slaughter, leaving also James their king dead on the plain.

The most remarkable personage connected with this reign was Thomas afterwards Cardinal Wolsey; who, having obtained an appointment as chaplain to the king, passed rapidly forward to the first offices in

the state. The nobility looked with envy and dissatisfaction on the sudden greatness of this favourite; and Wolsey, to draw the king's attention from their representations, planned an expensive and frivolous meeting between Henry and Francis the first, of France. Some months before the meeting, a defiance had been sent by the two kings to each other's court, and through all the chief cities of Europe, importing that Henry and Francis, with fourteen aids, would be ready in the plains of Picardy, to answer all comers, that were gentlemen, at tilt and tourney. Accordingly, the monarchs, now gorgeously apparelled, entered the lists on horseback; Francis surrounded with Henry's guards, and Henry with those of Francis. They were both at that time the most comely personages of their age, and prided themselves on their expertness in the military exercises. The ladies were the judges in these feats of chivalry; and they put an end to the encounter whenever they thought proper. It is supposed that the crafty French monarch was willing to gratify Henry's vanity, by allowing him to enjoy a petty pre-eminence in these pastimes. He ran a tilt against Monsieur Grandeval, whom he disabled at the first encounter. He engaged Monsieur de Montmorency, whom, however, he could not throw from the saddle. He fought at faulchion with a French nobleman, who presented him with his courser in token of submission.

But these empty splendours were not sufficient to appease the jealousy of the nobles at home, or quiet the murmurs of the people. Among these the Duke of Buckingham, the son of him who lost his life in the reign of Richard the Third, was the foremost to complain. He had often been heard to treat the

cardinal's pride and profusion with just contempt: and carrying his resentment perhaps to an improper length, some low informers took care that Wolsey should be apprised of all. The substance of his impeachment was, that he had consulted a fortune-teller concerning his succession to the crown, and had affected to make himself popular. This was but a weak pretext to take away the life of a nobleman, whose father had died in defence of the late king: but he was brought to a trial; and the Duke of Norfolk, whose son had married his daughter, was created high-steward, to preside at this solemn procedure. He was condemned to die as a traitor, by a jury consisting of a duke, a marquis, seven earls, and twelve barons.

The growing power of the cardinal was now, however, approaching to its end. That memorable revolution, the reformation of religion, began its operations, and ultimately relieved the country from the tyranny of Wolsey and the supremacy of the papal power. In accordance with the plan we have hitherto pursued, we reserve, for the present, our notices of this extraordinary event.

Henry had now been nearly twenty years married to Catharine of Arragon, who, as we have already related, had been brought over from Spain to marry his elder brother, who died a few months after cohabitation. But, notwithstanding the submissive deference paid to the indulgence of the church, Henry's marriage with this princess did not pass without scruple and hesitation. The prejudices of the people were in general bent against a conjugal union between such near relations; and the late king, though he had solemnized the espousals when his son was but twelve

years of age, gave many intimations that he intended to annul them at a proper opportunity. These intentions might have given Henry some doubts and scruples concerning the legitimacy of his marriage; but as he had three children by the princess, and as her character and conduct were blameless, he for a while kept his suggestions private. But she was six years older than her husband; and the decay of her beauty, together with particular infirmities and diseases, had contributed to make him desirous of another consort. However, though he felt a secret dislike to her person, yet for a long time he broke out into no flagrant act of contempt; being contented to range from beauty to beauty among the ladies of his court, and his rank always procuring him a ready compliance. But Henry was carried forward, though perhaps not at first excited, by a motive much more powerful than the tacit suggestions of his conscience. It happened that, among the maids of honour then attending the queen, there was one Anne Boleyn, the daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, a gentleman of distinction, and related to many of the nobility. He had been employed by the king in several embassies, and was married to the daughter of the Duke of Norfolk. The beauty of Anne surpassed whatever had hitherto appeared at this voluptuous court; and her education, which had been at Paris, tended to set off her personal charms. Her features were regular, mild, and attractive; her stature elegant, though below the middle size; while her wit and vivacity exceeded even her other allurements. Henry, who had never learned the art of restraining any passion that he desired to gratify, saw and loved her; but, after several efforts to induce her to comply with his

criminal desires, he found that without marriage he could have no chance of succeeding. This obstacle, therefore, he hardily undertook to remove; and as his own queen was now become hateful to him—in order to procure a divorce, he alleged that his conscience rebuked him for having so long lived in incest with the wife of his brother. In this pretended perplexity, he applied to Clement the Seventh, who owed him many obligations, desiring him to dissolve the bull of the former pope, which had given him permission to marry Catharine; and to declare that it was not in the power even of the holy see, to dispense with a law so strictly enjoined in scripture. The unfortunate pope was now in the utmost perplexity; queen Catharine was aunt to the emperor, who had lately made him a prisoner, and whose resentment he dreaded to rekindle by thus injuring so near a relation; besides, he could not in prudence declare the bull of the former pope illicit; for this would be giving a blow to the doctrine of papal infallibility. On the other hand Henry was his protector and friend; the dominions of England were the chief resource from which his finances were supplied; and the King of France, some time before, had obtained a bull of divorce in somewhat similar circumstances. In this exigency, he thought the wisest method would be to spin out the affair by a negociation; and in the mean time sent over a commission to Wolsey, in conjunction with the Archbishop of Canterbury, or any other English prelate, to examine the validity of the king's marriage and the former dispensation; granting them also a provisional dispensation for the king's marriage with any other person. When this message was laid before the council in England, they pru-

dently considered that an advice given by the pope in this secret manner might very easily be disavowed in public, and that a clandestine marriage would totally invalidate the legitimacy of any issue the king should have by such a match. In consequence of this, fresh messengers were despatched to Rome, and evasive answers returned, the pope still continuing to promise, recant, dispute, and temporize; hoping that the king's passion would never hold out during the tedious course of an ecclesiastical controversy. In this he was entirely mistaken. Henry had been long taught to dispute as well as he, and quickly found, or wrested, many texts of scripture to favour his opinions or his passions. To his arguments he added threats, assuring the pope, that the English were already but too well disposed to withdraw from the holy see; and that, if he continued uncomplying, the whole country would readily follow the example of a monarch, who, stung by ingratitude, should deny all obedience to a pontiff by whom he had always been treated with falsehood and duplicity. The king even proposed to his holiness, whether, in case of his not being permitted to put away his present queen, he might not have a dispensation for having two wives at a time.

The pope, perceiving the eagerness of the king, at one time had thoughts of complying with his solicitations, and sent cardinal Campeggio, his legate, to London, who, with Wolsey, opened a court for trying the legitimacy of the king's present marriage, and cited the king and the queen to appear before them. They both presented themselves; and the king answered to his name when called: but the queen, instead of answering to hers, rose from her seat, and, throwing herself at the king's feet, in the most

pathetic manner entreated him to have pity upon her helpless situation. A stranger, unprotected, unfriended, she could only rely on him as her guardian and defender; on him alone who knew her submission and her innocence, and not upon any court in which her enemies prevailed, and would wrest the laws against her: she therefore refused the present trial, where she could expect neither justice nor impartiality. Yet, notwithstanding the queen's objections, her trial went forward; and Henry shortly hoped to be gratified in his most sanguine expectations. The principal point which came before the legates, was the proof of prince Arthur's consummation of his marriage with Catharine, which some of his own expressions to that purpose tended to confirm. Other topics were preparing, tending to prove the inability of the pope himself to grant such a dispensation: and the business seemed now to be drawing near a period; when, to the great surprise of all, Campeggio, without any warning, and upon very frivolous pretences, suddenly prorogued the court, and transferred the cause before the court of Rome.

During the course of these perplexing negociations, on the issue of which Henry's happiness seemed to depend, he had at first expected to find in his favourite Wolsey a warm defender and a steady adherent; but in this he found himself mistaken. Wolsey seemed to be nearly in the same dilemma with the pope. On the one hand, he was to please his master the king, from whom he had received a thousand marks of favour; and on the other hand, he feared to disoblige the pope, whose servant he more immediately was, and who besides had power to punish his disobedience. He therefore resolved to continue neuter in this con-

troversy; and, though of all men the most haughty, he gave way on this occasion to his colleague Campeggio in all things, pretending a deference to his skill in canon law. Wolsey's scheme of temporizing was highly displeasing to the king; but for a while he endeavoured to stifle his resentment, until it could act with more fatal certainty. He for some time looked out for a man of equal abilities and less art; and it was not long before accident threw in his way one Thomas Cranmer, a man of learning and talent, and probably of greater integrity than the cardinal. Cranmer was a doctor of divinity, and a professor at Cambridge, but had lost his office upon marrying contrary to the institutes of the canon law, which enjoined celibacy to all the clergy. He had travelled in his youth into Germany; and it was there he became acquainted with Luther's works, and embraced his doctrines. This man happening to fall one evening into company with Gardiner, secretary of state, and Fox, the king's almoner, the business of the divorce became the subject of conversation. He gave it as his opinion, that the readiest way to quiet the king's conscience, or to extort the pope's consent, would be to consult all the universities of Europe upon the affair; an advice which, being brought to the king, pleased him so much, that Cranmer was desired to follow the court.

The king, finding himself provided with a person who could supply Wolsey's place, appeared less reserved in his resentments against that prelate. The attorney-general was ordered to prepare a bill of indictment against him; and he was soon after commanded to resign the great seal. Crimes are easily found against a favourite in disgrace; and the cour-

tiers did not fail to increase the catalogue of his errors. He was ordered to depart from his palace at Westminster; and all his furniture and plate were converted to the king's use. The inventory of his goods being taken, they were found to exceed even the most extravagant surmises. Of fine holland alone there were found a thousand pieces; the walls of his palace were covered with cloth of gold and silver; he had a cupboard of plate of massy gold; all the rest of his riches and furniture were in proportion, and probably their greatness invited the hand of power. The parliament soon after confirmed the sentence of the court of Star-chamber against him; and he was ordered to retire to Esher, a country seat which he possessed near Hampton; there to await the king's farther pleasure, with all the fluctuations of hope and apprehension. Still, however, he was in possession of the archbishopric of York, and the bishopric of Winchester; and the king gave him distant gleams of hope, by sending him a ring, accompanied with a gracious message. Wolsey, who, like every bad character, was proud to his equals, and mean to those above him, happening to meet the king's messenger on horseback, immediately alighted, and, throwing himself on his knees in the mire, received, in that abject manner, those marks of his majesty's condescension. But his hopes were soon overturned; for, after he had remained some time at Esher, he was ordered to remove to his see of York, where he took up his residence at Cawood, and rendered himself very popular in the neighbourhood by his affability. He was not allowed to remain long unmolested in this retreat. He was arrested by the Earl of Northum-

berland, at the king's command, for high-treason; and preparations were made for conducting him to London, in order to his trial. He at first refused to comply with the requisition, as being a cardinal; but finding the earl bent on performing his commission, he complied, and set out, by easy journeys, for London, to appear as a criminal, where he had acted as a king. In his way he stayed a fortnight at the mansion of the Earl of Shrewsbury; where one day at dinner he was taken ill, not without violent suspicion of having poisoned himself. Being thence brought forward, he with much difficulty reached Leicester Abbey; where, the monks coming out to meet him, he said, "Father abbot, I am come to lay my bones among you; and immediately ordered his bed to be prepared. As his disorder increased, an officer being placed near, at once to guard and attend him, he spoke to him a little before he expired, to this effect; "I pray you have me heartily recommended unto his royal majesty; he is a prince of a most royal carriage, and hath a princely heart; and rather than he will miss or want any part of his will, he will endanger one half of his kingdom. I do assure you I have kneeled before him, for three hours together, to persuade him from his will and appetite; but could not prevail. Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, he would not have given me over in my grey hairs. But this is the just reward that I must receive for my indulgent pains and study, not regarding my service to God, but only to my prince." He died soon after, in all the pangs of remorse, and left a life which he had all along rendered turbid by ambition, and wretched by mean

assiduities. He left two natural children; one of whom, being a priest, was loaded with church preferments.

Henry, being thus relieved from the power of Wolsey, and having succeeded in obtaining from all sects and parties (the papal see excepted) an acknowledgment of his right to be divorced from his queen, Catharine of Arragon, privately married Anne Boleyn, whom he had created Marchioness of Pembroke; the Duke of Norfolk, uncle to the new queen, her father, mother, and Doctor Cranmer, being present at the ceremony. Soon after, finding the queen pregnant, he publicly owned his marriage; and, to colour his disobedience to the pope with an appearance of triumph, he passed with his beautiful bride through London, with a magnificence greater than had been ever known before. The streets were strewed, the walls of the houses were hung with tapestry, the conduits ran with wine, and an universal joy was diffused among the people, who were contented rather with the present festivity, than solicitous to examine the motives of it. Catharine, who had all along supported her claims with resolution, and yet with modesty, was cited to a trial; but, refusing to appear, she was pronounced contumacious; and judgment was given against the validity of her marriage with the king. At length, finding the inutility of farther resistance, she retired to Amptill, near Dunstable, where she passed the rest of her life in privacy and peace.

When intelligence of the king's marriage was conveyed to Rome, the conclave was in a rage; and the pope, incited by the ardour of the cardinals, and frightened also by the menaces of the emperor, pub-

lished a sentence, declaring queen Catharine alone to be Henry's lawful wife; and requiring him to take her again, with a denunciation of censures in case of refusal. On the other hand, Henry, finding that his subjects of all ranks had taken part with him, and had willingly complied with his attempts to break off a foreign dependence, resolved no longer to continue those submissions which no power could extort. The people had been prepared by degrees for this great innovation; care had been taken for some years to inculcate the doctrine, that the pope was entitled to no authority beyond the limits of his own diocese. The king, therefore, no longer delayed his meditated scheme of separating entirely from the church of Rome. The parliament was at his devotion; the majority of the clergy were in his interest, as they had already declared against the pope, by decreeing in favour of the divorce; and the people, above all, wished to see the church humbled, which had so long controlled them at pleasure, and grown opulent by their labours and distresses. Thus all things conspiring to co-operate with his designs, he ordered himself to be declared by his clergy the supreme head of the church; the parliament confirmed the title, abolished all authority of the pope in England, voted all tributes formerly paid to the holy see as illegal, and intrusted the king with the collation to all ecclesiastical benefices. The nation came into the king's measures with joy, and took an oath, called the oath of supremacy; all the credit of the pope, that had subsisted for ages, was now at once overthrown; and none seemed to repine at the revolution, except those who were immediately interested by their dependence on the court of Rome.

Though Henry had separated himself from the church of Rome, he still professed to maintain the Catholic religion; and amidst the new doctrines which the reformers were inculcating, and the fresh observances in matters of faith, dictated by Henry himself, the people were frequently at a loss to know what they ought to profess to avoid the dangers of persecution. Many were the victims that were sacrificed to the blind bigotry and intolerant spirit of the age; but, of all who suffered, none excited greater commiseration than Sir Thomas More, who, though he had been created chancellor, resigned his office rather than appear to sanction the breach with the church of Rome. After the mockery of a trial, he was condemned to be beheaded.

The concurrence which the people seemed to lend to these severities, added to the great authority which Henry, from his severe administration, possessed, induced him to proceed still farther in his scheme of innovation. As the monks had all along shewn him the greatest resistance, he resolved at once to deprive them of future power to injure him. He accordingly empowered Cromwell, secretary of state, to send commissioners into the several counties of England, to inspect the monasteries, and to report, with rigorous exactness, the conduct and deportment of such as were resident there. This employment was readily undertaken by some creatures of the court, namely, Layton, London, Price, Gage, Petre, and Belasis, who are said to have discovered monstrous disorders in many of the religious houses;—whole convents of women abandoned to all manner of lewdness; friars accomplices in their crimes; pious frauds every where practised to increase the devotion and liberality

of the people; and cruel and inveterate factions maintained between the members of many of these institutions. These accusations, whether true or false, were urged with great clamour against these communities; and a general horror was excited in the nation against them.

The king now thought he might with safety, and even with some degree of popularity, abolish these institutions; but, willing to proceed gently at first, he gave directions to the parliament to go no farther at present than to suppress the smaller monasteries, which possessed revenues below the value of two hundred pounds a year. By this act three hundred and seventy-six monasteries were suppressed; and their revenues, amounting to thirty-two thousand pounds a year, were granted to the king, besides their goods and plate, computed at a hundred thousand pounds more. But this was only the beginning of his confiscations; for, about two years after, he resolved upon the entire destruction of all monasteries whatsoever. A new visitation was therefore appointed, and fresh crimes were also produced; so that his severities were conducted with such seeming justice and success, that in less than two years he became possessed of the revenues of all the monastic foundations. These, on the whole, amounted to six hundred and forty-five, of which twenty-eight had abbots who enjoyed a seat in parliament. Ninety collegiate institutions, two thousand three hundred and seventy-four chantries and free chapels, and a hundred and ten hospitals, were likewise suppressed. The whole revenue of these establishments amounted to one hundred and sixty-one thousand pounds—less than a twentieth part of the national income. The loss which was

sustained by the clergy upon this occasion, was by no means so great or mortifying as the cruel insults and reproaches to which they were exposed for their former frauds and avarice. The numberless relics which they had amassed to delude and draw money from the people, were now brought forward, and exposed before the populace with the most poignant contempt;—an angel with one wing, that brought over the head of the spear which pierced the side of Christ; coals that had roasted St. Laurence; the parings of St. Edmund's toes; certain relics to prevent rain; others to stop the generation of weeds among corn. There was a crucifix at Boxley in Kent, distinguished by the appellation of the Rood of Grace, which had been long in reputation for bending, raising, rolling the eyes, and shaking the head. It was brought to London, and broken to pieces at Paul's cross; and the wheels and springs by which it was actuated were shewn to the people. At Hales, in Gloucestershire, the monks had carried on a profitable traffic with the pretended blood of Christ in a crystal phial. This relic was no other than the blood of a duck killed weekly, and exhibited to the pilgrim: if his prayers were accepted, the blood was shewn him; if supposed to be rejected, the phial was turned; and, being on one side opaque, the blood was no longer to be seen. But the spoils of St. Thomas à Becket's shrine, at Canterbury, exceeded what even imagination might conceive. The shrine was broken down, and the gold that adorned it filled two large chests, which eight strong men could hardly carry out of the church. The king even cited the saint himself to appear, and to be tried and condemned as a traitor. He ordered his name to be

struck out of the calendar, his bones to be burned, and the office for his festival to be struck out of the breviary.

Such were the violent measures with which the king proceeded against these seats of indolence and imposture ; but as great murmurs were excited upon this occasion, he took care that all those who could be useful to him, or even dangerous in case of opposition, should be sharers in the spoil. He either made a gift of the revenues of the convents to his principal courtiers, or sold them at low prices, or exchanged them for other lands on very disadvantageous terms. He erected six new bishoprics, Westminster, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol, Chester, and Gloucester, of which the last five still continue. He also settled salaries on the abbots and priors, proportioned to their former revenues or their merits : and each monk was allowed a yearly pension of eight marks for his subsistence.

Anne Boleyn, had been always a favourer of the Reformation, and consequently had many enemies on that account, who only waited a convenient occasion to destroy her credit with the king ; and that occasion too soon presented itself. The king's passion was by this time palled by satiety. As the only desire he ever had for her arose from that brutal appetite which enjoyment soon destroys, he had now fallen in love, if we may so prostitute the expression, with another, and languished for the possession of Jane Seymour, who had for some time been maid of honour to the queen.

As soon as the queen's enemies perceived the king's disgust, they resolved on taking the first opportunity of gratifying his inclination to get rid of her, by pro-

ducing crimes against her, which his passions would quickly make real. The viscountess Rochford in particular, who was married to the queen's brother, herself a woman of infamous character, began with the most cruel insinuations against the reputation of her sister-in-law. She pretended that her own husband was engaged in an incestuous correspondence with his sister; and, not contented with this insinuation, represented all the harmless levities of the queen as favours of a criminal nature. The king's jealousy first appeared openly in a tilting at Greenwich, where the queen happened to drop her handkerchief, as was supposed, to one of her minions to wipe his face, after having overheated himself in the exercise. Though this might have been very harmless, the king abruptly retired from the place, and sent orders to have her confined to her apartment. Anne smiled at first, thinking the king was in jest; but when she found it was a very serious affair, she received the sacrament in her closet, sensible of what little mercy she had to expect from so furious a tyrant.

In the mean time, her enemies were not remiss in inflaming the accusation against her. The Duke of Norfolk, from his attachment to the old religion, took care to produce several witnesses, accusing her of incontinence with some of the meaner servants of the court. Four persons were particularly pointed out as her paramours; Henry Norris, groom of the stole, Weston and Brereton, gentlemen of the king's bed-chamber, together with Mark Smeton, a musician. As these had served her with much assiduity, their respect might have been construed by suspicion into more tender attachments. The next day the queen was sent to the Tower, earnestly protesting her inno-

cence, and sending up prayers to heaven for assistance in this extremity. She in vain begged to be admitted into the presence of the king; the lady Boleyn, her uncle's wife, who had always hated her, was ordered to continue in the same chamber, and she made a report of all the incoherent ravings of the afflicted prisoner. She owned that she had once rallied Norris on his delaying his marriage, and had told him that he probably expected her when she should be a widow. She had reproved Weston, she said, for his affection to a kinswoman of hers, and his indifference towards his wife; but he told her that she had mistaken the object of his affection, for it was herself. She affirmed that Smeton had never been in her chamber but twice, when he played on the harpsichord; but she acknowledged that he once had the boldness to tell her, that a look sufficed him.

Every person at court now abandoned the unhappy queen in her distress, except Cranmer, who, though forbidden to come into the king's presence, wrote a letter to him in behalf of the queen; but his intercession had no effect. When Norris and the other prisoners were tried in Westminster-hall, Smeton was prevailed upon, by the promise of a pardon, to confess a criminal correspondence with the queen; but he was not confronted with her: and his execution with the rest, shortly after, served to acquit her of the charge. Norris, who had been much in the king's favour, had an offer of his life, if he would confess his crime and accuse his mistress; but he rejected the proposal with contempt, and died professing her innocence and his own.

In the mean time, the queen, who saw the terrible appearance of her fortunes, attempted to soften the

king by every endeavour to spare the lives of the unfortunate men whose deaths were decreed. But his was a stern jealousy fostered by pride; and nothing but her removal could appease him. Her letter to him, upon this occasion, written from the Tower, is full of the tenderest expostulations, and too remarkable to be omitted here; as its manner serves at once to mark the situation of her mind, and shews to what a pitch of refinement she had, even at that time, carried the language. It is as follows:

“Sir,

“Your grace’s displeasure, and my imprisonment, are things so strange unto me, as what to write, or what to excuse, I am altogether ignorant. Whereas you send unto me (willing me to confess a truth and so obtain your favour) by such an one, whom you know to be mine ancient and professed enemy, I no sooner received this message by him, than I rightly conceived your meaning; and if, as you say, confessing a truth indeed may procure my safety, I shall with all willingness and duty perform your command.

“But let not your grace ever imagine that your poor wife will ever be brought to acknowledge a fault, where not so much as a thought thereof preceded. And to speak a truth, never prince had wife more loyal in all duty, and in all true affection, than you have ever found in Anne Boleyn; with which name and place I could willingly have contented myself, if God and your grace’s pleasure had been so pleased. Neither did I at any time so far forget myself in my exaltation, or received queenship, but that I always looked for such an alteration as I now find; for the ground of my preferment being on no surer founda-

tion than your grace's fancy, the least alteration I knew was fit and sufficient to draw that fancy to some other object. You have chosen me, from a low estate, to be your queen and companion, far beyond my desert or desire. If then you found me worthy of such honour, good your grace, let not any light fancy, or bad counsel of mine enemies, withdraw your princely favour from me; neither let that stain, that unworthy stain, of a disloyal heart towards your good grace, ever cast so foul a blot on your most dutiful wife, and the infant princess your daughter. Try me, good king; but let me have a lawful trial, and let not my sworn enemies sit as my accusers and judges; yea, let me receive an open trial, for my truth shall fear no open shame: then shall you see either mine innocence cleared, your suspicion and conscience satisfied, the ignominy and slander of the world stopped, or my guilt openly declared: so that whatsoever God or you may determine of me, your grace may be freed from an open censure; and mine offence being so lawfully proved, your grace is at liberty both before God and man, not only to execute worthy punishment on me as an unlawful wife, but to follow your affection already settled on that party, for whose sake I am now as I am; whose name I could some good while since have pointed unto your grace, not being ignorant of my suspicion therein.

“But if you have already determined of me, and that not only my death, but an infamous slander, must bring you the enjoying of your desired happiness, then I desire of God that he will pardon your great sin therein, and likewise mine enemies, the instruments thereof; and that he will not call you to a strict account for your unprincely and cruel usage of me at his general judgment-seat, where both you and myself must shortly

appear, and in whose judgment I doubt not (whatsoever the world may think of me), mine innocence shall be openly known and sufficiently cleared.

"My last and only request shall be, that myself shall only bear the burden of your grace's displeasure; and that it may not touch the innocent souls of those poor gentlemen, who (as I understand) are likewise in strait imprisonment for my sake. If ever I have found favour in your sight, if ever the name of Anne Boleyn hath been pleasing in your ears, then let me obtain this request: and I will so leave to trouble your grace any farther, with mine earnest prayers to the Trinity, to have your grace in his good keeping, and to direct you in all your actions. From my doleful prison in the Tower, this sixth of May.—Your most loyal and ever faithful wife,

"ANNE BOLEYN."

It was not to be expected that eloquence could prevail on a tyrant, whose passions were to be influenced by none of the nobler motives. The queen and her brother were tried by a jury of peers; but upon what proof or pretence the crime of incest was urged against them, is unknown; the chief evidence, it is said, amounted to no more than that Rochford had been seen to lean on her bed before some company. Part of the charge against her was, that she had declared to her attendants, that the king never had her heart; which was considered as a slander upon the throne, and strained into a breach of a late statute, by which it was declared criminal to throw any slander upon the king, queen, or their issue. The unhappy queen, though unassisted by counsel, defended herself with great judgment and presence of mind; and the spec-

tators could not forbear declaring her entirely innocent. She answered distinctly to all the charges brought against her: but the king's authority was not to be controlled; she was declared guilty, and her sentence ran, that she should be burned or beheaded, at the king's pleasure. When this terrible sentence was pronounced against her, she could not help offering up a prayer to heaven, vindicating her innocence; and, in a most pathetic speech to her judges, averred the injustice of her condemnation. But the tyrant, not satisfied with this vengeance, was desirous also of having her daughter declared illegitimate; and, remembering the report of a contract between her and Percy, Earl of Northumberland, prevailed upon the queen, either by promise of life, or not executing the sentence in all its rigour, to confess such a contract. The afflicted primate, who sat as judge, thought himself obliged, by this confession, to pronounce the marriage null; and Henry, in the transports of his malignant prosecution, did not see, that if her marriage had been invalid from the beginning, the sentence of adultery must have been invalid also.

She who had been once the envied object of royal favour, was now going to give a melancholy instance of the capriciousness of fortune: upon her returning to prison, she once more sent protestations of her innocence to the king. "You have raised me," said she, "from privacy to make me a lady; from a lady you made me a countess; from a countess a queen; and from a queen I shall shortly become a saint in heaven." On the morning of her execution, she sent for Kingston, the keeper of the Tower, to whom, upon entering the prison, she said, "Mr. Kingston, I hear I am not to die till noon, and I am sorry for it; for I thought to

be dead before this time, and free from a life of pain." The keeper, attempting to comfort her, by assuring her the pain would be very little; she replied, "I have heard the executioner is very expert; and, (clasping her neck with her hands, laughing,) I have but a little neck." When brought to the scaffold, from a consideration of her child Elizabeth's welfare, she would not inflame the minds of the spectators against her prosecutors, but contented herself with saying "that she was come to die as she was sentenced by the law." She would accuse none, nor say any thing of the ground upon which she was judged; she prayed heartily for the king, called him "a most merciful and gentle prince;" declared that he had always been to her a good and gracious sovereign; and, if any one should think proper to canvass her cause, she desired him to judge the best. She was beheaded by the executioner of Calais, who was brought over, as much more expert than any in England. Her body was negligently thrown into a common chest of elm-tree, made to hold arrows, and was buried in the Tower. Anne Boleyn seemed to be guilty of no other crime than that of having survived the king's affections; and although many crowned heads had already been put to death in England, she was the first who underwent all the forms of law, and was beheaded on a scaffold.

The people in general, beheld her fate with pity; but still more when they discovered the cause of the tyrant's impatience to destroy her; for, the very next day after her execution, he married the lady Jane Seymour: his cruel heart being no way softened by the wretched fate of one who had been so lately the object of his warmest affections. He also ordered his

parliament to give him a divorce between her sentence and execution; and thus he endeavoured to bastardize Elizabeth, the only child he had by her, as he had in the same manner formerly bastardized Mary, his only surviving child by queen Catharine.

Nothing could exceed the brutalities which now began and continued to characterize the reign of the eighth Henry. The murder of his queen, Anne Boleyn, was but one item in a fearful amount of crime, which he was daily accumulating on his head. The fires of Smithfield blazed unceasingly; and blood was shed like water to satisfy the tyrant's rage, or gratify his vain-glory, as a religious disputant.

During these horrid transactions, Henry was resolved to take another queen, Jane Seymour having died in child-bed; and, after some negociation upon the continent, he contracted a marriage with Anne of Cleves, his aim being by her means to fortify his alliances with the princes of Germany. Nor was he led into this match without a most scrupulous examination, on his side, of the lady's personal accomplishments. He was assured by his envoy that she was of a very large person; which was the more pleasing to him, as he was at that time become very corpulent, and consequently required a similar figure in a wife. He was still farther allured by her picture, in which Holbein, who drew it, was, it seems, more a friend to his art than to truth; for he greatly flattered her. The king, upon her landing, went privately to meet her at Rochester, where he was very much damped in his amorous ardour. He found her big indeed, and tall as he could wish, but utterly devoid of grace and beauty: she could also speak but one language, her native German; so that her conversation could never

recompense the defects of her person. He swore she was a great Flanders mare; and added, that he could never settle his affections upon her. However, sensible that he would greatly disoblige her brother, the duke, and consequently all the German princes in his alliance, he resolved to marry her; and he told Cromwell, who was chiefly instrumental in this affair, that, since he had gone so far, he would put his neck into the yoke, whatever it cost him. The marriage was accordingly celebrated, but the king's disgust was only increased by it; he told Cromwell the next morning that he hated her more than ever; and even suspected her not to be a true maid, a circumstance in which he thought himself extremely skilful. Cromwell saw the danger he incurred by having been instrumental in forming this union; but he endeavoured, by his assiduity and humble adulation, to keep the king from coming to extremities with him.

But he should have known that a tyrant once offended is implacable. Henry's aversion to the queen secretly increased every day; and he at length resolved to get rid of her and his prime minister together. The fall of this favourite was long and ardently wished for by a great part of the nation. The nobility hated a man, who, from such mean beginnings, was placed before the first persons in the kingdom; for besides being made vicar-general, which gave him almost absolute authority over the clergy, he was lord privy-seal, lord-chamberlain, and master of the rolls. He had also obtained the order of the Garter, a dignity which had hitherto been conferred only on the most illustrious families; and to carry his exaltation still higher, he had been made Earl of Essex. The Protestants disliked him for his concurrence with the king's will in their

persecution; and the Papists detested him as the inveterate enemy of their religion. It only remained, therefore, with the king to hasten or retard the punishment of a man who had scarcely a partisan in the nation, except himself. But he had a strong cause of dislike to him for his late unpropitious alliance; and a new motive was soon added for increasing his displeasure. He had fixed his affection on Catharine Howard, niece to the Duke of Norfolk: and the only method of gratifying this new passion was, as in former cases, discarding the present queen, to make room for a new one. The Duke of Norfolk had long been Cromwell's mortal enemy, and eagerly embraced this opportunity to destroy a man whom he considered as his rival.

He therefore made use of all his niece's arts to ruin the favourite; and when his project was ripe for execution, he obtained a commission from the king to arrest Cromwell for high-treason. His disgrace was no sooner known than all his friends forsook him, except Cranmer, who wrote such a letter to Henry in his behalf, as no other man in the kingdom would have presumed to offer. However, he was accused in parliament of heresy and treason, and, without being heard in his own defence, was condemned to suffer the pains of death, as the king should think proper to direct. Cromwell's fortitude seemed to forsake him in this dreadful exigency. He wrote to the king for pardon; said, that the frail flesh incited him continually to apply to his grace for mercy; and subscribed his epistle with a heavy heart and a trembling hand, "from the king's most miserable prisoner and poor slave at the Tower, Thomas Cromwell. Mercy, mercy, mercy!"

Cromwell's letter touched the hard heart of the

monarch; he ordered it to be read to him three times; and then, as if willing to gain a victory over all his softer feelings, he signed the warrant for beheading him on Tower-hill. When Cromwell was brought to the scaffold, his regard for his son hindered him from expatiating upon his own innocence; he thanked God for bringing him to that death for his transgressions; confessed he had often been seduced, but that he now died in the Catholic faith. It was thus that Henry, not satisfied with the death of those whom he chose to punish, repressed their complaints also, and terrified the unhappy sufferers from the last consolation of the wretched, the satisfaction of upbraiding their persecutors. In this manner the unhappy sufferer, having spent some time in his private devotions, submitted his neck to the executioner, who mangled him in a most terrible manner. A few days after his death, a number of people were executed together upon very different accusations; some for having denied the king's supremacy, and others for having maintained the doctrines of Luther.

About a month after the death of Cromwell, the king declared his marriage with Catharine Howard, whom he had some time before privately espoused. This was regarded as a very favourable incident by the Catholic party; and the subsequent events for a while turned out to their wish. The king's counsels being now entirely directed by Norfolk and Gardiner, a furious persecution commenced against the Protestants, and the law of the Six Articles was executed with rigour; so that a foreigner, who then resided in England, had reason to say, that those who were against the pope were burned, and those who were for him were hanged. The king, with an ostentatious

impartiality, reduced both parties to an equal share of subordination, and infused terror into every breast.

But the measure of his severities was not yet filled up. He had thought himself very happy in his new marriage. He was so captivated with the queen's accomplishments, that he gave public thanks for his felicity, and desired his confessor to join with him in the same thanksgiving. This joy, however, was of very short duration. While the king was at York, upon an intended conference with the king of Scotland, a man of the name of Lascelles had waited upon Cranmer at London; and from the information of this man's sister, who had been servant to the duchess-dowager of Norfolk, he gave a very surprising account of the queen's incontinence. He averred that she led a very lewd life before her marriage, and had carried on a very scandalous correspondence with two men, called Derham and Mannock; and that she continued to indulge herself in the same criminal pleasures since she had been raised to her present greatness. Cranmer was equally surprised and embarrassed at this intelligence, which he communicated to the chancellor, and some other members of the privy-council, who advised him to make the king acquainted with the whole affair on his return to London. The archbishop knew the hazard he ran by intermeddling in such delicate points; but he also knew the danger he incurred by suppressing his information. He therefore resolved to communicate what he had heard, by writing, in the form of a memorial; and this he shortly after delivered into the king's own hand, desiring his majesty to read it in private. Henry at first disbelieved, or pretended to disbelieve, the report; he ordered the keeper of the *privy-seal* to examine Lascelles, who persisted in his

former narrative, and even produced his sister to confirm his account. Upon this, Derham and Mannock were arrested; and they quickly confessed their own guilt, and the queen's incontinence. They went still farther, by impeaching Lady Rochford, who had formerly been so instrumental in the death of Anne Boleyn. They alleged that this lady had introduced one Culpepper into the queen's bedchamber, who staid with her from eleven at night till four in the morning. When the queen was first examined, she denied the charge; but afterwards, finding that her accomplices were her accusers, she confessed her incontinence before marriage, but denied her having dishonoured the king's bed since their union. But three maids of honour, who were admitted to her secrets, still farther alleged her guilt; and some of them confessed having passed the night in the same bed with her and her lovers. The king was so affected at this discovery, that he burst into a flood of tears, and bitterly lamented his misfortune. Derham and Culpepper were convicted and executed; but he was resolved to throw the odium of the queen's death upon the parliament, who had always shewn themselves the ready ministers of all his severities. These servile creatures, upon being informed of the queen's crime and confession, quickly found her guilty, and petitioned the king that she might be punished with death; that the same penalty might be inflicted on the lady Rochford, the accomplice of her debaucheries; and that her grandmother, the duchess-dowager of Norfolk, her uncle, lord William Howard, and his lady, together with the countess of Bridgewater, and nine others, as having been privy to the queen's irregularities, should participate in her punishment. With this petition the king was most

graciously pleased to agree; they were condemned to death by an act of attainder, which, at the same time, made it capital for all persons to conceal their knowledge of the debaucheries of any future queen. It was also enacted, that if the king married any woman who had been incontinent, taking her for a true maid, she should be guilty of treason, in case she did not previously reveal her guilt. The people made merry with this absurd and brutal statute; and it was said, that the king must henceforth look out for a widow. After all these laws were past, in which the most wonderful circumstance is, that a body of men could ever be induced to give their consent, the queen was beheaded on Tower-hill, together with the lady Rochford, who found no great degree of compassion, as she had herself before tampered in blood. The queen was more pitied, as she owned that she had led a dissolute life before marriage; but denied, in her last moments, and with the utmost solemnity, that she had ever been untrue since her marriage with the king. The public exclaimed so loudly against the severity of the act, which brought in so many accomplices of her guilt, that the king did not think proper to execute sentence upon them, though some of them were long detained in confinement.

In about a year after the death of the last queen, Henry once more changed his condition, by marrying his sixth and last wife, Catharine Parr, who, according to the humorous suggestions of the people, was in fact a widow. She was the wife of the late Lord Latimer, and was considered as a woman of discretion and virtue. She had already passed the meridian of life, and managed the temper of this capricious tyrant with prudence and success. His amiable days had long

been over; he was almost choked with fat, and had contracted a morose air, very far from inspiring affection. Nevertheless, this woman, sacrificing her appetites to her ambition, so far prevailed in gaining his confidence, that she was appointed regent of the kingdom during his absence in France, whither he passed over at the head of thirty thousand men, to prosecute a war which had been declared between him and the French king. He there behaved, as in all his former undertakings, with ineffectual ostentation. Instead of marching into the heart of the country, he sat down before Boulogne, which was obliged to capitulate; and his ally (the emperor) making a separate peace, Henry was obliged to return with his army into England, where he found his subjects ready to offer him their accustomed adulation, and to praise him for an enterprise in which, at an infinite charge, he had made an acquisition that was of no manner of benefit.

In the midst of his brutal tyrannies, Henry took it into his head to compose a book of religion, entitled, "The Institution of a Christian Man," that was to be the code by which his subjects should regulate their faith. This precious composition was received by the convocation with all that adulation which usually attends a despotic ruler and a corrupt age.

The existence of the tyrant was now, however, approaching a termination. An ulcer in his leg, and other infirmities, threatened him with the usual fate of humanity. The natural cruelty of his disposition was so greatly increased by the sufferings he endured, that no one had the courage to warn him of his coming end. At last, Sir Anthony Denny had the courage to disclose to him this dreadful secret; and, contrary to his usual custom, he received the tidings with an

expression of resignation. His anguish and remorse were at this time greater than can be expressed: he desired that Cranmer might be sent for; but, before that prelate could arrive, he was speechless. Cranmer desiring him to give some sign of his dying in the faith of Christ, he squeezed his hand, and immediately expired, after a reign of thirty-seven years and nine months, in the fifty-sixth year of his age. Some kings have been tyrants from contradiction and revolt, some from being misled by favourites, and some from a spirit of party: but Henry was cruel from a depraved disposition alone; cruel in government, cruel in religion, and cruel in his family. Our divines have taken some pains to vindicate the character of this brutal prince, as if his conduct and our Reformation had any connexion with each other. There is nothing so absurd as to defend the one by the other: the most noble designs are brought about by the most vicious instruments; for we see even that cruelty and injustice were thought necessary to be employed in our holy redemption.

THE REFORMATION OF RELIGION.

AN uninterrupted train of triumphs over the Christian world, seemed firmly to have established the despotism of the popes. But there is an appointed time for every thing. It was reserved by Providence for an obscure individual to shake this formidable throne, to deprive the Romish sovereign of one-half of his empire, and discompose the other: to rouse men from that deep sleep in which they were buried, and present them with the lamp of reason and religion, by which they might see the errors, impostures, and usurpations of the Latin church.

The first dawn of the Reformation appeared in the time of Edward the Third. John Wickliffe, a doctor and professor of divinity in the University of Oxford, maintained that the substance of the sacramental bread and wine remained unaltered after consecration; and opposed the doctrine of purgatory, indulgences, auricular confession, the invocation of saints, and the worship of images. These new doctrines obtained considerable credit, and their followers were very numerous; but in the reign of Henry the Fifth a terrible persecution of the Wickliffites took place, and the sect was almost entirely extirpated in England. It was not, however, until the time of the eighth Henry that the Reformation began, in Germany, under Martin Luther. Pope Leo X. was at that time engaged in building the church of St. Peter

at Rome, and, to defray the expenses of the undertaking, a commission was granted for the sale of indulgences. This office had formerly been held by the Augustine friars, but was now transferred to the Dominicans. Martin Luther, who was an Augustine monk, resented this transfer, by preaching against the efficacy of indulgences and the power of the Pope; and in the end he attacked and overthrew the principal doctrines of the Romish church. In the reign of Edward the Sixth, the Reformation began to take deep root in England; and on the death of Mary, it was firmly established by Elizabeth.

EDWARD VI. SON OF HENRY VIII. AND JANE
SEYMOUR.

Edward the sixth-mosurd, afterwards came.

HENRY the Eighth was succeeded on the throne by his only son, Edward the Sixth, then in the tenth year of his age. The late king, in his will, which he expected would be absolutely obeyed, fixed the majority of the prince at the completion of the eighteenth year; and in the mean time, appointed sixteen executors of his will, to whom, during the minority, he entrusted the government of the king and kingdom. But the vanity of his aims was soon discovered; for the first act of the executors was to choose the Earl of Hertford, who was afterwards made Duke of Somerset, as protector of the realm; and in him was lodged all the regal power, together with a privilege of naming whom he would for his privy-council.

This was a favourable season for those of the reformed religion; and the eyes of the late king were no sooner closed, than all of that persuasion congratulated themselves on the event. They no longer suppressed their sentiments, but maintained their doctrines openly, in preaching and teaching, even while the laws against them continued in full force.

Somerset, who favoured the Reformation, continued to drive on his favourite schemes of reformation, and gave more consistency to the tenets of the church. The cup was restored to the laity in the sacrament of the Lord's supper; private masses were abolished; the king was empowered to create bishops by letters patent; vagabonds were adjudged to be slaves for two years, and to be marked with a red hot-iron; an act commonly supposed to be levelled against the strolling priests and friars. It was enacted also, that all who denied the king's supremacy, or asserted that of the pope, should for the first offence, forfeit their goods and chattels, and suffer imprisonment during pleasure; that for the second offence, they should incur the pain of premunire; and for the third, be attainted of treason. Orders were issued by the council, that candles should no longer be carried about on Candlemas-day, ashes on Ash-Wednesday, or palms on Palm-Sunday. These were ancient superstitious practices, which led to immoralities that it was thought proper to restrain. An order also was issued for the removal of all images from the churches; an innovation which was much desired by the reformers, and which alone, with regard to the populace, amounted almost to a change of the established religion. The people had for some time been extremely distracted by the opposite opinions of their

preachers; and as they were totally incapable of judging of the arguments advanced on either side, and naturally regarded everything they heard at church as of the greatest authority, much confusion and fluctuation resulted from this uncertainty. The council first endeavoured to remove the inconvenience by laying some restraints upon preaching: but finding this expedient fail, they imposed a total silence upon preachers; which however was removed by degrees, in proportion as the Reformation gained ground among the people. Still the persecuting spirit stalked abroad, and many suffered at the stake for some peculiarity in their faith not conformable to the established liturgy and doctrines of the day.

Although the measures adopted by the reformers were intended for the benefit of the nation, and in the end turned out entirely to the advantage of society, yet they were at that time attended with many inconveniences, to which all changes whatsoever are liable. When the monasteries were suppressed, a prodigious number of monks were obliged to earn their subsistence by their labour; so that all kinds of business were overstocked. The lands of the monasteries also had been formerly farmed out to the common people, so as to employ a great number of hands; and the rents being moderate, they were able to maintain their families on the profits of agriculture. But now these lands being possessed by the nobility, the rents were raised; and the farmers, perceiving that wool was a better commodity than corn, turned all their fields into pasture. In consequence of this practice the price of meal rose, to the unspeakable hardship of the lower class of people. Beside, as few hands were required to manage a pasture farm, a great

number of poor people were utterly deprived of subsistence, while the nation was filled with murmurs and complaints against the nobility, who were considered as the sources of the general calamity. To add to these complaints, the rich proprietors of lands proceeded to enclose their estates; while the tenants, regarded as an useless burden, were expelled from their habitations. Cottagers, deprived of the commons on which they formerly fed their cattle, were reduced to misery; and a great decay of people, and diminution of provisions, were observed in every part of the kingdom. To add to this picture of general calamity, all the good coin of the kingdom was hoarded up or exported; while base metal was coined, or imported from the continent, in great abundance; and this the poor were obliged to receive in payment, but could not disburse at an equal advantage. Thus an universal diffidence and stagnation of commerce took place; and loud complaints were heard in every quarter.

By lavish expenditure and impolitic courses, the Duke of Somerset began to decline in public favour; and though, by abject submissions, he contrived for the time to avert the consequences of the resentments he had roused, his powerful enemy, the Earl of Warwick began to take the lead and lay the foundation of his destruction. Warwick was willing to indulge the nobility with the humiliations of the church; and perceiving that the king was extremely attached to the Reformation, he supposed that he could not make his court to the young monarch better than by a seeming zeal in the cause. But he was still steadfastly bent on enlarging his own power; and as the last Earl of Northumberland died without issue or

heirs, Warwick procured for himself a grant of his ample possessions, and obtained the title also of Duke of Northumberland. The Duke of Somerset was now the only person he wished to have entirely removed; for fallen as he was by his late spiritless conduct, yet he still preserved a share of popularity that rendered him formidable to this aspirer. Indeed, Somerset was not always upon his guard against the arts of Northumberland, but could not help now and then bursting out into invectives, which were quickly carried to his secret enemy. As he was surrounded by the creatures of his adversary, they took care to reveal all the schemes which they had themselves suggested; and Somerset soon found the fatal effects of his rival's resentment. He was, by Northumberland's command, arrested, with many more, accused of being his partisans, and both he and his wife the duchess, were thrown into prison. He was now accused of having conspired to raise an insurrection in the north, to attack the trained bands on a muster-day, secure the Tower, and excite a rebellion in London. These charges he strenuously denied; but he confessed one of as heinous a nature, which was, that he had laid a project for murdering Northumberland, Northampton, and Pembroke, at a banquet which was to be given them by Lord Paget. He was soon after brought to a trial before the Marquis of Winchester, who sat as high-steward on the occasion, with twenty-seven peers more, including Northumberland, Pembroke, and Northampton, who were at once his judges and accusers. He was accused of an intention to secure the person of the king, and re-assume the administration of affairs; to assassinate the Duke of Northumberland, and raise an insurrection in the city. He pleaded

"not guilty" to the first part of the charge, and of this he was accordingly acquitted; but he was found guilty of conspiring the death of a privy counsellor, which crime had been made felony in the reign of Henry the Seventh; and for this he was condemned to death. The populace, seeing him re-conveyed to the Tower without the axe, which was no longer carried before him, imagined that he had been entirely acquitted, and in repeated shouts and acclamations manifested their joy; but this was suddenly damped, when they were better informed of his doom. Care, in the mean time, had been taken to prepossess the young king against his uncle; and, lest he should relent, no access was given to any of Somerset's friends, while the prince was kept from reflection by a series of occupations and amusements. At last the prisoner was brought to the scaffold on Tower-hill, where he appeared without the least emotion, in the midst of a vast concourse of the populace, by whom he was beloved. He spoke to them with great composure, protesting that he had always promoted the service of his king, and the interests of true religion to the best of his power. The people attested their belief to what he said, by crying out "It is most true." As an universal tumult was beginning to take place among them, Somerset desired them to be still, and not to interrupt his last meditations, but to join with him in prayer: he then laid down his head, and submitted to the stroke of the executioner. Sir Ralph Vane and Sir Miles Partridge were hanged; Sir Michael Stanhope and Sir Thomas Arundel were beheaded, as being his accomplices.

Nothing could have been more unpopular than the

measure of destroying Somerset, who, though some actions of his life were very exceptionable, consulted the good of the people. The House of Commons was particularly attached to him; and of this Northumberland was very sensible. He therefore advised the king to dissolve the parliament, and call another that would be more obsequious to his will. Edward was even prevailed upon to write circular letters to all the sheriffs, in which he enjoined them to choose such men as he and the privy-council should recommend. With this despotic mandate the sheriffs readily complied; and the members returned fully answered Northumberland's expectations. He had long aimed at the first authority; and the infirm state of the king's health opened the prospects of his ambition. He represented to that young prince that his sisters Mary and Elizabeth, who were appointed by Henry's will to succeed on the failure of direct heirs to the crown, had been both declared illegitimate by parliament; that the queen of Scotland was excluded by the king's will, and, being an alien also, lost all right of succeeding; that as the three princesses were thus legally excluded, the succession naturally devolved to the Marchioness of Dorset (neice of Henry), whose heir was the Lady Jane Grey, a lady every way accomplished for government, as well by the charms of her person, as the virtues and acquirements of her mind. The king, who had long submitted to all the politic views of this designing minister, agreed to have the succession submitted to the council, where Northumberland hoped to procure an easy concurrence.

In the mean time, as the king's health declined, the minister laboured to strengthen his own interest and connexions. His first aim was to secure the interest

of the Marquis of Dorset, father to Lady Jane Grey, by procuring for him the title of Duke of Suffolk, which was lately become extinct. Having thus obliged this nobleman, he then proposed a match between his fourth son, Lord Guildford Dudley, and the Lady Jane Grey, whose interests he had been at so much pains to advance. Still bent on spreading his interests as widely as possible, he married his own daughter to Lord Hastings, and had these marriages solemnized with all possible pomp and festivity. Meanwhile, Edward continued to languish; and several fatal symptoms of a consumption began to appear. It was hoped, however, that his youth and temperance might get the better of his disorder; and from their love the people were unwilling to think him in danger. It had been remarked indeed by some, that his health was visibly seen to decline from the time that the Dudleys were brought about his person. The character of Northumberland might have justly given some colour to suspicion; and his removing all, except his own emissaries, from about the king, still farther increased the disguests of the people. Northumberland, however, was no way uneasy at their murmurs; he was assiduous in his attendance upon the king, and professed the most anxious concern for his safety, but still drove forward his darling scheme of transferring the succession to his own daughter-in-law. The judges who were appointed to draw up the king's letters-patent for that purpose, warmly objected to the measure, and gave their reasons before the council. They begged that a parliament might be summoned, both to give it force, and to free its partisans from danger; they said that the form was invalid, and would not only subject the judges who drew it, but every counsellor who signed it, to the

pains of treason. Northumberland could not brook their demurs; he threatened them with the dread of his authority; he called one of them a traitor, and said that he would fight in his shirt with any man in so just a cause as that of the Lady Jane's succession. A method was therefore found out of screening the judges from danger, by granting them the king's pardon for what they should draw up; and at length, after much deliberation, and some refusals, the patent for changing the succession was completed. By this patent Mary and Elizabeth were set aside, and the crown was settled on the heirs of the Duchess of Suffolk; for the duchess herself was contented to forego her claim.

Northumberland, having thus far succeeded, thought physicians were no longer serviceable in the king's complaint; they were dismissed by his advice; and Edward was put into the hands of an ignorant woman, who very confidently undertook his cure. After the use of her medicines, all the bad symptoms increased to a most violent degree; he felt a difficulty of speech and breathing; his pulse failed, his legs swelled, his colour became livid, and many other symptoms appeared of his approaching end. He expired at Greenwich, in the sixteenth year of his age, and the seventh of his reign, greatly regretted by all, as his early virtues gave a prospect of the continuance of a happy reign. What were the real qualities of this young prince's heart, there was not time to discover; but the cultivation of his understanding, if we may credit historians, was amazing. He was said to understand the Greek, Latin, French, Italian, and Spanish languages. He was versed in logic, music, natural philosophy, and theology. Cardan, the extraordinary scholar and physician, happening to pay a visit to the

English court, was so astonished at his early progress, that he extols him as a prodigy of nature. It is probable, however, that so much flattery as he received would have contributed to corrupt him, as it had formerly corrupted his father.

MARY, DAUGHTER OF HENRY VIII. AND CATHARINE
OF ARRAGON.

And *Mary-messendo*, who kindled the flame,
In which Protestant martyrs their being laid down.

ON the death of Edward, the crown, by virtue of the will of Henry VIII., devolved on Mary, the daughter of the last-named monarch. This will was now, however, set aside by the intrigues of Northumberland, by whose advice a will was made, as we have seen, in favour of Lady Jane Grey, in prejudice of all other claimants. Thus, after the death of this young monarch, there were no fewer than four princesses who could assert their pretensions to the crown: Mary, who was the first upon Henry's will, but who had been declared illegitimate by an act of parliament, which had not been repealed: Elizabeth was next to succeed, and though she had been declared illegitimate, yet she had been restored to her rights during her father's life: the young queen of Scotland, grand-daughter of Henry's eldest sister, was first in right, supposing the two daughters illegitimate: while Lady Jane Grey might allege the will of the late king in her own favour.

Of these, however, only two put in their pretensions to the crown; Mary, relying on the justice of her cause, and Lady Jane upon the support of the Duke of Northumberland, her father-in-law. Mary was strongly bigoted to the popish superstitions, having been bred

up among churchmen, and having been even taught to prefer martyrdom to a denial of belief. As she had lived in continual restraint, she was reserved and gloomy; she had, even during the life of Henry, the resolution to maintain her sentiments, and refused to comply with his new institutions. Her zeal had rendered her furious; and she was not only blindly attached to her religious opinions, but even to the popish clergy who maintained them. On the other hand, Jane Grey was strongly attached to the reformers; and, though yet but sixteen, her judgment had attained to such a degree of maturity as few have been found to possess. All historians agree that the solidity of her understanding, improved by continual application, rendered her the wonder of her age. Ascham, tutor to Elizabeth, informs us, that, having visited Lady Jane, at her father's house in Leicestershire, he found her reading Plato's works in Greek, while all the rest of the family were hunting in the park. Upon his testifying his surprise at her situation, she assured him that Plato was a higher amusement to her than the most studied refinements of sensual pleasure; and she, in fact, seemed born for philosophy, and not for ambition.

Such were the present rivals for power; but Lady Jane had the start of her antagonist. Northumberland, now resolving to secure the succession, carefully concealed the death of Edward, in hope of securing the person of Mary, who, by an order of council, had been required to attend her brother during his illness; but being informed of his death, she immediately prepared to assert her pretensions to the crown. This crafty minister, therefore, finding that farther dissimulation was needless, went to Sion-house, accompanied by the

Duke of Suffolk, the Earl of Pembroke, and others of the nobility, to salute Lady Jane Grey, who resided there. Jane was in a great measure ignorant of all these transactions; and it was with equal grief and surprise that she received intelligence of them. She shed a flood of tears, appeared inconsolable, and it was not without the utmost difficulty that she yielded to the entreaties of Northumberland and the duke her father. At length, however, they exhorted her to consent, and next day conveyed her to the Tower, where it was usual for the sovereigns of England to pass some days after their accession. Thither also all the members of the council were obliged to attend her, and thus were in some measure ~~made~~ prisoners by Northumberland, whose will they were under a necessity of obeying. Orders were also given for proclaiming her throughout the kingdom; but these were very remissly obeyed. When she was proclaimed in the city, the people heard her accession made public without any signs of pleasure: no applause ensued, and some even expressed their scorn and contempt.

Lady Jane, finding that the general voice of the people was in favour of Mary's accession, resigned her royalty, which she had held but nine days, with marks of real satisfaction, and retired with her mother to her own habitation. Northumberland also, who found his affairs desperate, and that it was impossible to stem the tide of popular opposition, attempted to quit the kingdom; but he was prevented by the band of pensioner guards, who informed him that he must stay to justify their conduct in being led out against their lawful sovereign. Thus circumvented on all sides, his cunning was now his only resource; and he began by endeavouring to recommend himself to Mary

by the most extravagant protestations of zeal in her service. He repaired to the market-place in Cambridge, proclaimed her queen of England, and was the first to throw up his cap in token of joy. But he reaped no advantage from his mean duplicity; he was the next day arrested in the queen's name by the Earl of Arundel, at whose feet he fell upon his knees, begging protection with the most abject submission. Three of his sons, his brother, and some more of his followers, were arrested with him, and committed to the Tower of London. Soon after, the Lady Jane Grey, the Duke of Suffolk, her father, and Lord Guilford Dudley, her husband, were made prisoners by order of the queen, whose authority was now confirmed by universal assent.

Northumberland was the first who suffered for opposing her, and was the person who deserved punishment the most. When brought to his trial, he openly desired permission to ask two questions of the peers who were appointed to sit on his jury: "Whether a man could be guilty of treason, who obeyed orders given him by the council under the great seal; and whether those involved in the same guilt with himself could act as his judges?" Being told that the great seal of an usurper was no authority, and that his judges were proper, as they were unimpeached, he acquiesced and pleaded guilty. At his execution, he owned himself a Papist, and exhorted the people to return to the Catholic faith, as they hoped for happiness and tranquillity. Sir John Gates, and Sir Thomas Palmer, two of the infamous tools of his power, suffered with him; and the queen's resentment was appeased by the lives of three men, who had forfeited them by several former crimes. Sentence was pronounced against Lady Jane, and Lord Guilford, but without any intention

for the present of putting it in execution: the youth and innocence of the persons, neither of whom had completed their seventeenth year, pleaded powerfully in their favour.

Mary now entered London, and, with very little effusion of blood, saw herself joyfully proclaimed, and peaceably settled on the throne. From her bigoted attachment to the Catholic religion, men now foresaw that the Reformation was to be overturned; and though the queen still pretended that she would grant a general toleration, yet no great favour could be expected by those who, from her inveterate prejudices, were hateful to her.

The first step that caused an alarm among the Protestants was the severe treatment of Cranmer, whose moderation, integrity, and virtues, had made him dear even to most of the Catholic party. A report being spread, that this prelate, in order to make his court to the queen, had promised to officiate in the Latin service, he drew up a declaration, in which he entirely cleared himself of the aspersion, but incurred what was much more terrible, the queen's resentment. On the publication of this paper, Cranmer was thrown into prison, and tried for the part he had acted, in concurring, among the rest of the council, to exalt Lady Jane, and set aside the rightful sovereign. This guilt he had in fact incurred; but as it was shared with a large body of men, most of whom were not only uncensured, but even taken into favour, the malignancy of the prosecution was easily seen through. Sentence of high-treason was, therefore, pronounced against him; but it was not then executed, as this venerable man was reserved for a more dreadful punishment. Shortly after, Peter Martyr, a German reformer, who

had in the late reign been invited over to England, seeing how things were likely to go, desired leave to return to his native country. But the zeal of the Catholics, though he had escaped them, was malignantly, though harmlessly, wreaked upon the body of his wife, which had been interred some years before at Oxford: it was dug up by public order, and buried in a dunghill. The bones also of Bucer and Fagius, two foreign reformers, were about the same time committed to the flames at Cambridge. The greater part of the foreign Protestants took early precautions to leave the kingdom; and many arts and manufactures fled with them. Nor were their fears without foundation; a parliament, which the queen called soon after, seemed willing to concur in all her measures: they at one blow repealed all the statutes with regard to religion, which had passed during the reign of her predecessor; so that the national religion was again placed on the same footing on which it stood at the death of Henry the Eighth.

While religion was thus returning to its pristine abuses, the queen's ministers, who were willing to strengthen her power by a Catholic alliance, had been for some time looking out for a proper consort. The person on whom her own affections seemed chiefly placed was the Earl of Devonshire; but that nobleman, either disliking her person, or having already placed his affections on her sister Elizabeth, neglected all overtures to such an alliance. Pole, who, though elevated to the dignity of a cardinal, was not a priest, and being therefore at liberty to marry, was proposed as a husband for the queen, as he was a person of high character for virtue, generosity, and attachment to the Catholic religion. But, as he was in the decline of

life, Mary soon dropped all thoughts of him. The person last thought of, and who succeeded, was Philip, prince of Spain, son of the celebrated Charles the Fifth. In order to avoid any disagreeable remonstrances from the people, the articles of marriage were drawn as favourably as possible to the interests and honour of England; and this, in some measure, stilled the clamours that had already arisen against it.

The queen's marriage excited much angry feeling in the breasts both of the aristocracy and of the commons. The alliance indeed threatened to produce a series of evil consequences to the kingdom, which were, however, averted by the failure of any issue from this union. A powerful conspiracy was formed against Mary; and the exertion necessary to crush the confederacy appeared to rouse up in full strength the natural malignity and cruelty of her disposition. The leaders of the insurrection suffered death, and their followers obtained pardon only by the most abject and degrading submissions.

But what excited the compassion of the people most of all, was the execution of Lady Jane Grey, and her husband Lord Guilford Dudley, who were involved in the punishment, though not in the guilt, of this insurrection. Two days after Wyatt was apprehended, Lady Jane and her husband were ordered to prepare for death. Lady Jane, who had long before seen the threatened blow, was no way surprised at the message, but bore it with heroic resolution; and being informed that she had three days to prepare, she seemed displeased at so long delay. On the day of her execution, her husband desired permission to see her; but this she refused, as she knew the parting would be too tender for her fortitude to withstand.

The place at first designed for their execution, was without the Tower; but their youth, beauty, and innocence, being likely to raise an insurrection among the people, orders were given that they should be executed within the verge of that fortress. Lord Dudley was the first that suffered; and while the lady Jane was proceeding to the place of execution, the officers of the Tower met her, bearing the headless body of her husband streaming with blood, in order to be interred in the Tower chapel. She looked on the corpse for some time without any emotion: and then, with a sigh, desired them to proceed. Sir John Gage, constable of the Tower, as he led her to execution, desired her to bestow on him some small present, which he might keep as a perpetual memorial of her. She gave him her tablets, where she had just written three sentences on seeing the dead body of her husband, one in Greek, one in Latin, and one in English, importing that human justice was against his body, but divine mercy would be favourable to his soul; and that God and posterity, she hoped, would do justice to them and their cause. On the scaffold she made a speech, in which she alleged that her offence was not the having laid her hand upon the crown, but the not rejecting it with sufficient constancy; that she had less erred through ambition than filial obedience; that she willingly accepted death, as the only atonement she could make to the injured state; and was ready, by her punishment to shew that innocence is no plea in excuse for deeds that tend to injure the community. After speaking to this effect, she caused herself to be disrobed by her women, and with a steady and serene countenance submitted to the executioner.

The enemies of the state being thus suppressed, the theatre was now opened for the pretended enemies of religion. The queen, being freed from apprehensions of an insurrection, began by assembling a parliament, which upon this, as upon most occasions, seemed only met to give countenance to her various severities. The nobles, whose only religion was that of the prince who governed, were easily gained over; and the House of Commons had long been passive under all the variations of regal caprice. But a new enemy had started up against the reformers, in the person of the king, who, though he took all possible care to conceal his aversion, yet secretly influenced the queen, and inflamed all her proceedings. Philip had for some time been in England, and had used every endeavour to increase that share of power which had been allowed to him by parliament, but without effect. The queen, indeed, who loved him with a foolish fondness, that sat but ill upon a person of her years and disagreeable person, endeavoured to please him by every concession she could make or procure: and finding herself incapable of satisfying his ambition, she was not remiss in concurring with his zeal; so that heretics began to be persecuted with inquisitorial severity. The old sanguinary laws were now revived; orders were given that the bishops and priests who had married, should be ejected; that the mass should be restored; that the pope's authority should be established; and that the church and its privileges, all but their goods and estates, should be put upon the same foundation on which they were before the commencement of the Reformation. As the gentry and nobles had already divided the church-lands among them, it was thought inconvenient, and indeed impossible, to make a restoration of these.

All the horrors of religious persecution were now daily enacted. The doctrines of the reformed religion had been canvassed among the people, and began to be generally admitted in many quarters; and not a few boldly determined to submit to any punishment which might be inflicted, rather than return to the errors of popery. The accursed fires consumed their numerous victims; and no regard was paid to difference of age or sex in the appropriation of punishment. The tender mercies of Mary's inquisitors could be brought to contemplate nothing beyond the utter extermination of the enemies of their faith.

Cranmer's death followed soon after, and struck the whole nation with horror. This prelate, whom we have seen acting so very conspicuous a part in the Reformation during the two preceding reigns, had been long detained a prisoner, in consequence of his imputed guilt in obstructing the queen's succession to the crown. But it was now resolved to bring him to punishment; and, to give it all its malignity, the queen ordered that he should be punished for heresy rather than for treason. He was accordingly cited by the pope to stand his trial at Rome; and though he was kept a prisoner at Oxford, yet upon his not appearing, he was condemned as contumacious. But his enemies were not satisfied with his tortures, without adding to them the poignancy of self-accusation. Persons were, therefore, employed to tempt him by flattery and insinuation, by giving him hopes of once more being received into favour, to sign his recantation, by which he acknowledged the doctrines of the Papal supremacy and the real presence. His love of life prevailed. In an unguarded moment he was induced to sign this paper; and now his enemies, as we are told of the devil, after having rendered him completely wretched,

resolved to destroy him. But it was determined, before they led him out to execution, that they should try to induce him to make a recantation in the church before the people. The unfortunate prelate, either having a secret intimation of their design, or having recovered the native vigour of his mind, entered the church prepared to surprise the whole audience by a contrary declaration. When he had been placed in a conspicuous part of the church, a sermon was preached by Cole, provost of Eton, in which he magnified Cranmer's conversion as the immediate work of heaven itself. He assured the archbishop, that nothing could have been so pleasing to God, the queen, or the people; he comforted him, by intimating, that, if he should suffer, numberless dirges and masses should be said for his soul; and that his own confession of his faith would still more secure his soul from the pains of purgatory. During the whole rhapsody Cranmer expressed the utmost agony, anxiety, and internal agitation; he lifted up his eyes to heaven, he shed a torrent of tears, and groaned with unutterable anguish. He uttered a prayer, filled with the most pathetic expressions of horror and remorse. He then said he was well apprised of his duty to his sovereign; but that a superior duty, the duty which he owed his Maker, obliged him to declare that he had signed a paper contrary to his conscience; that he took this opportunity of atoning for his error by a sincere and open recantation: he was willing, he said, to seal with his blood that doctrine, which he firmly believed to be communicated from heaven; and that, as his hand had erred by betraying his heart, it should undergo the first punishment. The assembly, consisting chiefly of Papists, who hoped to triumph in the last words of

such a convert, were equally confounded and incensed at this declaration. They called aloud to him to leave off dissembling: and led him forward, amidst the insults and reproaches of his audience, to the stake at which Latimer and Ridley had suffered. He resolved to triumph over their insults by his constancy and fortitude; and the fire beginning to be kindled round him, he stretched forth his right hand, and held it in the flames till it was consumed, while he frequently cried out in the midst of his sufferings, "That unworthy hand!" at the same time exhibiting no appearance of pain or disorder. When the fire attacked his body, he seemed to be quite insensible of his tortures; his mind was occupied wholly upon the hopes of a future reward. After his body was destroyed, his heart was found entire: an emblem of the constancy with which he suffered.

These persecutions were now become odious to the whole nation; and, as it may be easily supposed, the perpetrators of them were all willing to throw the odium from themselves upon others. Philip, sensible of the hatred which he must incur upon this occasion, endeavoured to remove the reproach from himself by a very gross artifice. He ordered his confessor to deliver in his presence a sermon in favour of toleration; but Bonner, in his turn, would not take the whole of the blame, and retorted the severities upon the court. In fact a bold step was taken to introduce a court similar to that of the Spanish inquisition, that should be empowered to try heretics, and condemn them, without any other form of law than its own authority. But even this was thought too dilatory in the present exigency of affairs. A proclamation was issued against books of heresy, treason, and

sedition, declaring that all persons who had such books in their possession, and did not burn them without reading, should be deemed rebels, and suffer accordingly. This, as might be expected, was attended with bloody effects; whole crowds were executed, till even at last the very magistrates, who had been instrumental in these cruelties, refused to lend their assistance. It was computed that, during this persecution, two hundred and seventy-seven persons suffered by fire, besides those punished by imprisonment, fines, and confiscations. Those who suffered by fire, were five bishops, twenty-one clergymen, eight lay-gentlemen, eighty-four tradesmen, one hundred husbandmen, fifty-five women, and four children.

All this was terrible; and yet the temporal affairs of the kingdom did not seem to be more successful. From Philip's first arrival in England the queen's pregnancy was talked of; and her own extreme desire that it should be true, induced her to favour the report. When Pole, the pope's legate, was first introduced to her, she fancied the child stirred in her womb; and this her flatterers compared to the leaping of John the Baptist in his mother's belly, at the salutation of the Virgin. The Catholics were confident that she was pregnant; they assured themselves that this child would be a son; they were even confident that Heaven would render him beautiful, vigorous, and witty. But it soon turned out that all their confidence was ill-founded; for the queen's supposed pregnancy was only the beginning of a dropsy, which the disordered state of her health had brought upon her.

Philip appears never to have entertained much affection for Mary, whilst her attachment to him was of the most ardent character: this led her to subserve

his purposes and gratify all his inclinations. At his instigation she entered into a war with France, which was attended with consequences of injurious tendency to her power and the honour of the kingdom. Calais, which had, for above two hundred years, been in the possession of the English, was recovered by the French. This loss filled the whole kingdom with murmurs, and the queen with despair; she was heard to say, that when dead, the name of *Calais* would be found engraven on her heart.

These complicated evils—a murmuring people, an increasing heresy, a disdainful husband, and an unsuccessful war—made dreadful depredations on Mary's constitution. She began to appear consumptive; and this rendered her mind still more morose and bigoted. The people now, therefore, began to turn their thoughts to her successor; and the princess Elizabeth came into a greater degree of consideration than before. During this whole reign, the nation was in continual apprehensions with regard not only to the succession but the life of this princess. The violent hatred of the queen broke out upon every occasion; while Elizabeth, conscious of her danger, passed her time wholly in reading and study, entirely detached from business. Proposals of marriage had been made to her by the Swedish ambassador, in his master's name; but she referred him to the queen, who leaving it to her own choice, she had the magnanimity to reserve herself for better fortune. Nor was she less prudent in concealing her sentiments of religion, and eluding all questions relative to that dangerous subject. She was obnoxious to Mary for two reasons: as she was next heir to the throne, it was feared she might aspire to it during her sister's

lifetime ; but it was still more reasonably apprehended that she would, if ever she came to the crown, make an innovation in that religion which Mary took such pains to establish. The bishops, who had shed such a deluge of blood, foresaw this ; and often told Mary that her destroying meaner heretics was of no advantage to the state, while the body of the tree was suffered to remain. Mary saw and acknowledged the cogency of their arguments, confined her sister with proper guards, and only waited for some fresh insurrection, or some favourable pretext, to destroy her. Her own death prevented the perpetration of her meditated cruelty.

Mary had been long in a declining state of health ; and having mistaken her dropsy for pregnancy, she made use of an improper regimen, which had increased the disorder. Every reflection now tormented her. The consciousness of being hated by her subjects, the prospect of Elizabeth's succession, whom she hated, and above all, her anxiety for the loss of her husband, who never intended to return—all these preyed upon her mind, and threw her into a lingering fever, of which she died, after a short and unfortunate reign of five years, four months, and eleven days, in the forty-third year of her age. She was buried in Henry the Seventh's chapel, according to the rites of the church of Rome.

ELIZABETH, DAUGHTER OF HENRY VIII. AND ANNE
BOLEYN.

Till Messid-Eliza in turn took the crown.

WERE we to adopt the maxim of the catholics, that evil may be done for the production of good, one might say that the persecutions in Mary's reign were permitted only to bring the kingdom more generally over to the protestant religion. Nothing could preach so effectually against the cruelty and vices of the monks, as the actions of the monks themselves. Wherever heretics were to be burned, the monks were always present, rejoicing at the flames, insulting the fallen, and frequently the first to thrust the flaming brand against the faces of the sufferers. The English were effectually converted, by such sights as these, from their ancient superstitions. To bring the people over to any opinion, it is only necessary to persecute, instead of attempting to convince. The people had formerly been compelled to embrace the protestant religion, and their fears induced them to conform; but now almost the whole nation were protestants from inclination.

Nothing therefore could exceed the joy that was diffused among the people upon the accession of Elizabeth, who now came to the throne without any opposition. She was at Hatfield when informed of her sister's death; and, hastening to London, was received by the multitude with universal acclamations. Philip, husband of the late queen, made proposals of marriage to Elizabeth, immediately on her coming to the throne; but, in addition to her political objections,

the queen liked neither the person nor the religion of her admirer, and returned him an evasive answer, which did not amount to a refusal, yet left him with small hope of success.

Elizabeth, who had ever been a friend to the reformation of religion, no sooner ascended the throne than she determined to fix it on a firm and permanent basis. Acting under the advice of Sir William Cecil, secretary of state, she commenced the work by recalling from exile, and releasing from prison, all who had been condemned for their religious opinions. The reformation soon proceeded with rapid and unexampled progress; and in a single session that form of religion was established which has descended to the present day.

By a course of wise policy, Elizabeth had seated herself firmly on the throne of her ancestors, and looked forward to a prosperous and felicitous reign.

A state of permanent felicity is not, however, to be expected here; and Mary Stuart, commonly called Mary, Queen of Scots, was the first person that excited the fears or the resentment of Elizabeth. Henry the Seventh married his eldest daughter, Margaret, to James the Fourth, King of Scotland, whose son and successor left no issue that came to maturity, except Mary. At a very early age, this princess, being possessed of every accomplishment of person and mind, was married to Francis the dauphin, afterwards King of France; who, dying, left her a widow at the age of eighteen. As Elizabeth had been declared illegitimate by Henry the Eighth, Francis, in right of his wife, began to assume the title of King of England; nor did the Queen of Scots, his consort, seem to decline sharing this empty appellation. But

though nothing could have been more unjust than such a claim, or more unlikely to succeed, Elizabeth, knowing that such pretensions might produce troubles in England, sent an ambassador to France, complaining of the behaviour of that court in this instance. Francis, however, was not upon such good terms with Elizabeth, as to forego any claims that would distress her; and her ambassador was sent home without satisfaction. Upon the death of Francis, Mary, the widow, still seemed disposed to keep up the title; but finding herself exposed to the persecutions of the dowager queen, who now began to take the lead in France, she determined to return to Scotland, and demanded a safe passage from Elizabeth through England. But it was now Elizabeth's turn to refuse; and she sent back a very haughty answer to Mary's request. From this time a determined personal enmity began to prevail between the rival queens, which subsisted for many years after, until the superior good fortune of Elizabeth prevailed.

As the transactions of this unfortunate queen make a distinguished part in Elizabeth's history, it will be necessary to give them greater room than has hitherto been given to the occurrences of Scotland. The Reformation in England having taken place, in Scotland also that work was begun, but with circumstances of greater animosity against the ancient superstition. The mutual resentment of the two parties in that kingdom knew no bounds; and a civil war was likely to end the dispute. It was in this divided state of the people, that Elizabeth, by giving encouragement to the reformers, gained their affections from their natural queen, who was a catholic, and who consequently favoured those of that persuasion. Thus

religion at last effected a sincere friendship between the English and Scots, which neither treaties nor marriages, nor the vicinity of situation, were able to produce. The reformers, to a man, considered Elizabeth as their patroness and defender, and Mary as their persecutor and enemy.

It was in this state of affairs that Mary returned from France to reign in Scotland, entirely attached to the customs and manners of the people she had left, and consequently very averse to the gloomy severity which her reformed subjects affected, and which they fancied made a proper ingredient in religion. A difference in religion, between the sovereign and the people, is ever productive of bad effects, since it is apt to produce contempt on one side, and jealousy on the other. Mary could not avoid regarding the sour manners of the reformed clergy, who now bore sway among the people, with a mixture of ridicule and hatred; while they, on the other hand, could not look tamely on the gaieties and levities which she introduced among them, without abhorrence and resentment. The jealousy thus excited, began every day to grow stronger; the clergy only waited for some indiscretion in the queen, to fly out into open opposition; and her volatile manners too soon gave them sufficient opportunity.

After two years had been spent in altercation and reproach between Mary and her subjects, it was resolved at last by her council, that she should look out for some alliance, by which she might be sheltered and protected against the insolence and misguided zeal of her spiritual instructors. After some deliberation, the Lord Darnley, son of the Earl of Lenox, was the person in whom their opinions and

wishes centred. He had been born and educated in England, was now in his twentieth year, was cousin-german to the queen; and what perhaps she might admire still more, he was extremely tall. Elizabeth was secretly no way averse to this marriage, as it freed her from the dread of a foreign alliance; but when informed that it was actually concluded and consummated, she pretended to testify the utmost displeasure: she menaced, complained, protested; seized the English estate of the Earl of Lenox, and threw the countess and her second son into the Tower. This duplicity of conduct was common enough with Elizabeth; and, on the present occasion, it served her as a pretext for refusing to acknowledge Mary's title to the succession of England, which that princess had frequently urged, but in vain.

Notwithstanding Elizabeth's complaints and resentment, Mary resolved to indulge her own inclinations; and, struck with the beauty of Darnley's figure, the match was driven forward with all expedition. Some of the first weeks of their connexion seemed to promise a happy union for the rest of their lives. However, it was not without some opposition from the reformers that this marriage was completed. It was agitated, whether the queen could marry without the consent of the people. Some lords rose up in arms to prevent it; but being pursued by a superior force, they found themselves obliged to abandon their country, and take refuge in England. Thus far all was favourable to Mary; and thus far she kept within the bounds of strict virtue. Her enemies were banished, her rival overruled, and she herself married to the man she loved.

While Mary had been dazzled by the pleasing

exterior of her new lover, she had entirely neglected to inquire into his mental accomplishments. Darnley was a weak and ignorant man; violent, yet variable in his enterprises; insolent, yet credulous, and easily governed by flatterers; devoid of all gratitude, because he thought no favours equal to his merit; and, being addicted to low pleasures, he was equally incapable of all true sentiments of love and tenderness. Mary, in the first effusions of her fondness, had taken a pleasure in exalting him beyond measure: but having leisure afterwards to remark his weakness and his vices, she began to convert her admiration into disgust; and Darnley, enraged at her increasing coldness, pointed his vengeance against every person to whose suggestions he attributed this change in her sentiments and behaviour.

There was then in the court one David Rizzio, the son of a musician at Turin, himself a musician; who, finding it difficult to subsist by his art in his own country, had followed the ambassador from that court into Scotland. As he understood music to perfection, and sang a good bass, he was introduced into the queen's concert, who was so pleased with him, that she desired the ambassador, upon his departure, to leave Rizzio behind. The excellence of his voice soon procured him greater familiarities; and, although he was by no means handsome, but rather ugly, the queen seemed to place peculiar confidence in him, and ever kept him next her person. Her secretary for French despatches having some time after fallen under her displeasure, she promoted Rizzio to that office, who, being shrewd, sensible, and aspiring beyond his rank, soon after began to entertain hopes of being promoted to the important office of chancellor

of the kingdom. He was consulted on all occasions: no favours could be obtained but by his intercession; and all suitors were first obliged to gain Rizzio to their interests, by presents, or by flattery. It was easy to persuade a man of Darnley's jealous uxorious temper, that Rizzio was the person who had estranged the queen's affections from him; and a surmise once conceived, became to him a certainty. He soon, therefore, consulted with some lords of his party, stung as he was with envy, rage, and resentment; and they not only fanned the conflagration in his mind, but offered their assistance to despatch Rizzio. George Douglas, natural brother to the Countess of Lenox, the Lords Ruthven and Lindsay, settled the circumstances of this poor creature's assassination among them, and determined that, as a punishment for the queen's indiscretions, the murder should be committed in her presence. Mary was at this time in the sixth month of her pregnancy, and was then supping in private, at table with the Countess of Argyle, her natural sister, some other servants, and her favourite Rizzio. Lord Darnley led the way into the apartment by a private staircase, and stood for some time leaning at the back of Mary's chair. His fierce looks and unexpected intrusion greatly alarmed the queen, who nevertheless kept silence, not daring to call out. A little after, Lord Ruthven, George Douglas, and the other conspirators, rushed in all armed, and shewing in their looks the brutality of their intentions. The queen could no longer restrain her terrors, but demanded the reason of this bold intrusion. Ruthven made her no answer: but ordered her favourite to quit a place of which he was unworthy. Rizzio instantly saw that he was the object

of their vengeance; and, trembling with apprehension, took hold of the queen's robes to put himself under her protection, while, on her part, she strove to interpose between him and the assassins. Douglas, in the mean time, had reached the unfortunate Rizzio; and snatching a dagger from the king's side, while the queen filled the room with her cries, plunged it into the bosom of Rizzio, who, screaming with fear and agony, was torn from Mary by the other conspirators, and dragged into the antechamber, where he was despatched with fifty-six wounds. The unhappy princess continued her lamentations; but being informed of his fate, at once dried her tears, and said she would weep no more, for she would now think of revenge. The insult indeed upon her person and honour, and the danger to which her life was exposed on account of her pregnancy, were injuries so atrocious and so complicated, that they scarcely left room for pardon.

This act of violence was only to be punished by temporizing; she pretended to forgive so great a crime; and exerted the force of her natural allurements so powerfully, that her husband submitted implicitly to her will. He soon gave up his accomplices to her resentment, and retired with her to Dunbar; while she, having collected an army which the conspirators had no power to resist, advanced to Edinburgh, and obliged them to fly into England, where they lived in great poverty and distress. They made application, however, to the Earl of Bothwell, a new favourite of Mary's, and that nobleman, desirous of strengthening his party by the accession of their interest, was able to pacify her resentment; and he soon after procured them liberty to return home.

The vengeance of the queen was implacable to her husband alone; his person was before disagreeable to her; and having persuaded him to give up his accomplices, she treated him with merited disdain and indignation. But it would have been well for her character and happiness had she rested only in despising:—she secretly resolved on a severer revenge. The Earl of Bothwell, who was now become her favourite, was of a considerable family in Scotland; and though not distinguished by any talents, civil or military, yet he made some noise in the dissensions of the state, and was an opposer of the Reformation. He was a man of profligate manners, had involved his fortune in great debts, and had reduced himself to beggary by his profusion. This nobleman, notwithstanding, had ingratiated himself so far with the queen, that all her measures were entirely directed by his advice and authority. Reports were even spread of more particular intimacies; and these gave such uneasiness to Darnley, that he left the court, and retired to Glasgow, to be no longer spectator of her supposed excesses. But this was not what the queen aimed at; she was determined upon more ample punishment. Shortly after, all those who wished well to her character, or repose to their country, were extremely pleased, and somewhat surprised, to hear that her tenderness for her husband was revived, and that she had taken a journey to visit him during his sickness. Darnley was so far allured by her behaviour on this occasion, that he resolved to part with her no more; he put himself under her protection, and soon after attended her to Edinburgh, which, it was thought, would be a place more favourable to his declining health. She lived in Holyrood-house; but as the situation of that place

was low, and the concourse of persons about the court necessarily attended with noise, which might disturb him in his present infirm state, she fitted up an apartment for him in a solitary house at some distance, called the Kirk of Field. Mary there gave him marks of kindness and attachment; she conversed cordially with him, and she lay some nights in a room under him. It was on the ninth of February that she told him she would pass the night in the palace, because the marriage of one of her servants was to be there celebrated in her presence. But dreadful consequences ensued. About two o'clock in the morning the whole city was much alarmed at hearing a great noise; the house in which Darnley lay was blown up with gunpowder. His dead body was found at some distance in a neighbouring field, but without any marks of violence or contusion. No doubt could be entertained that Darnley was murdered; and the general suspicion fell upon Bothwell as the perpetrator.

All orders of the state, and the whole body of the people, began to demand justice on the supposed murderer; the queen herself was not entirely exempt from the general suspicion; and papers were privately stuck up everywhere, accusing her of being an accomplice. Mary, more solicitous to punish others than defend herself, offered rewards for the discovery of those who had spread such reports; but no rewards were offered for the discovery of the murderers. One indiscretion led to another: Bothwell, though accused of being stained with her husband's blood, though universally odious to the people, had the confidence, while Mary was on her way to Stirling on a visit to her son, to seize her at the head of a body of eight hundred horse, and to carry her to Dunbar, where he

forced her to yield to his purposes. It was then thought by the people that the measure of his crimes was complete; and that he who was supposed to have murdered the queen's husband, and to have offered violence to her person, could expect no mercy: but they were astonished upon finding, instead of disgrace, that Bothwell was taken into more than former favour; and to crown all, that he was married to the queen, having divorced his own wife to procure this union.

After a series of difficulties, to which her indiscretions had given birth, Mary was now, though reluctantly, obliged to admit her ancient rival as an umpire in her cause; and the accusation was readily undertaken by Murray the regent, who expected to remove so powerful an assistant as Elizabeth, by the atrociousness of Mary's offences. This extraordinary conference, respecting the conduct of a foreign queen, was managed at York; three commissioners being appointed by Elizabeth, seven by the queen of Scots, and five by the regent, among whom he himself was included. These conferences were carried on for some time at the place first appointed; but, after a while, Elizabeth, either unwilling to decide, as she would thus give up the power she was now possessed of, or perhaps desirous of throwing all possible light upon Mary's conduct, ordered the commissioners to continue their conferences at Hampton-court, where they were spun out by affected delays. Whatever might have been the cause of protracting this conference in the beginning, is not known; but many of the proofs of Mary's guilt, which were suppressed at York, made their appearance before the board at Hampton-court. Among other proofs, were many letters and sonnets written in Mary's own hand to Bothwell, in which she

discovers her knowledge of Darnley's intended murder, and her contrivance to marry Bothwell, by pretending a forced compliance. These papers, it must be owned, are not free from the suspicion of forgery; yet the reasons for their authenticity seem to prevail. However this be, the proofs of Mary's guilt appearing stronger, it was thought proper to engage her advocates to give answers to them; but they, contrary to expectation, refused; alleging that, as Mary was a sovereign princess, she could not be subject to any tribunal; not considering that the aim of this conference was not punishment, but reconciliation; that it was not to try Mary in order to inflict penalties, but to know whether she was worthy of Elizabeth's friendship and protection. Instead of attempting to justify her conduct, the queen of Scots laboured nothing so much as to obtain an interview with Elizabeth, conscious that her insinuations, arts, and address, of all which she was a perfect mistress, would be sufficient to persuade her royal sister, and stand in place of innocence. But as she still persisted in a resolution to make no defence, this demand was finally refused her. She continued, however, to demand Elizabeth's protection; she desired that either she might be assisted in her endeavours to recover her authority, or that liberty should be given her for retiring into France there to make trial of the friendship of other princes. But Elizabeth, sensible of the danger which attended either of these proposals, was secretly resolved to detain her in captivity; and she was accordingly sent to Tutbury castle, in the county of Stafford, where she was put under the custody of the Earl of Shrewsbury: there she gave her royal prisoner hopes of one day coming into favour; and that, unless her

own obstinacy prevented, an accommodation might at last take place.

The Duke of Norfolk, the only peer who enjoyed that highest title of nobility in England, possessed qualities of mind corresponding to his high station. Beneficent, affable, and generous, he acquired the affections of the people ; and yet, from his moderation, he had never alarmed the jealousy of his sovereign. He was at this time a widower ; and being of a suitable age to espouse the Queen of Scots, her own attractions, as well as his interests, made him desirous of the match. But the obtaining Elizabeth's consent, previous to their nuptials, was considered as a circumstance essential to his aims. While he made almost all the nobility of England confidants to his passion, he never had the prudence, or the courage, to open his full intentions to the queen herself. On the contrary, in order to suppress the surmises that were currently reported, he spoke contemptuously of Mary to Elizabeth ; affirmed that his estates in England were of more value than the revenue of the whole kingdom ; and declared that, when he amused himself in his own tennis-court, at Norwich, he was a more magnificent prince than a Scottish king. This duplicity only served to inflame the queen's suspicions ; and, finding that she gave his professions no great degree of credit, he retired from the court in disgust. Repenting, however, soon after this measure, he resolved to return, with a view of regaining the queen's good graces ; but on the way he was stopped by a messenger from the queen, and soon committed to the Tower, under the custody of Sir Henry Nevil.

But the Duke of Norfolk was too much beloved by his partisans in the north, to be confined without an

effort made for his release. The Earls of Westmorland and Northumberland had prepared measures for a rebellion; had communicated their intentions to Mary and her ministers; had entered into a correspondence with the Duke of Alva, governor of the Low Countries, and had obtained his promise of men and ammunition. But the vigilance of Elizabeth's ministers was not to be eluded: orders were immediately sent for their appearance at court; and now the insurgent lords, perceiving their schemes discovered, were obliged to begin their revolt before matters were entirely prepared for its opening. They accordingly published a manifesto, in which they alleged that no injury was intended against the queen, to whom they vowed unshaken allegiance; but that their sole aim was to re-establish the religion of their ancestors, to remove all evil counsellors from about the queen's person, and to restore the Duke of Norfolk to his liberty and the queen's favour. Their number amounted to four thousand foot, and sixteen hundred horse; and they expected to be joined by all the Catholics in England. But they soon found themselves miserably undeceived; the queen's conduct had acquired the general good-will of the people, and she now perceived that her surest support was the justice of her actions. The Duke of Norfolk himself, for whose sake they had revolted, used every method that his circumstances would permit, to assist and support the queen; the insurgents were obliged to retire before her forces to Hexham; and hearing that reinforcements were upon their march to join the royal army, they found no other expedient but to disperse themselves without a blow. The queen was so well pleased with the duke's behaviour, that she now released him from

the Tower, and allowed him to return home, only exacting a promise from him, not to proceed any farther in his pretensions to the Queen of Scots.

But the queen's confidence was fatal to this brave but undesigning nobleman. He had scarcely been released a year, when new projects were set on foot by the enemies of the queen and the reformed religion, secretly fomented by Rodolphi, an instrument of the court of Rome, and the Bishop of Ross, Mary's minister in England. It was concerted by them that Norfolk should renew his designs upon Mary, to which it was probable he was prompted by passion; and this nobleman entering into their schemes, he, from being at first only ambitious, now became criminal. It was mutually agreed, therefore, that the duke should enter into all Mary's interests; while, on the other hand, the Duke of Alva promised to transport a body of six thousand foot, and four thousand horse, to join Norfolk as soon as he should be ready to begin. This scheme was so secretly laid, that it had hitherto entirely escaped the vigilance of Elizabeth, and that of her secretary Cecil, who now bore the title of Lord Burleigh. It was found out merely by accident; for the duke, having sent a sum of money to Lord Herries, one of Mary's partisans in Scotland, omitted trusting the servant with the contents of his message; and he finding, by the weight of the bag, that it contained a larger sum than the duke mentioned to him, began to mistrust some plot, and brought the money, with the duke's letter, to the secretary of state. It was by the artifices of that great statesman that the duke's servants were brought to make a full confession of their master's guilt; and the Bishop of Ross soon after, finding the whole discovered, did not scruple to confirm

their testimony. The duke was instantly committed to the Tower, and ordered to prepare for his trial. A jury of twenty-five peers unanimously passed sentence upon him; and the queen, four months after, reluctantly signed the warrant for his execution. He died with great calmness and constancy; and though he cleared himself of any disloyal intentions against the queen's authority, he acknowledged the justice of the sentence by which he suffered. A few months after, the Earl of Northumberland, being delivered up by the regent, underwent a similar trial, and was brought to the scaffold for his rebellion. All these ineffectual struggles in favour of the unfortunate Queen of Scots seemed only to rivet the chains of her confinement; and she now found relief only in the resources of her own mind, which distress had contributed to soften, refine, and improve. Henceforth she continued for many years a precarious dependant on Elizabeth's suspicions; and only waited for some new effort of her adherents, to receive that fate which political and not merciful motives seemed to suspend.

A combination of circumstances began now to prepare the way for Mary's ruin, whose greatest misfortunes proceeded rather from the violence of her friends than the malignity of her enemies. Elizabeth's ministers had long been waiting for some signal instance of the captive queen's enmity, which they could easily convert into treason; and this was not long wanting. John Ballard, a popish priest, who had been bred in the English seminary at Rheims, resolved to compass the death of a queen whom he considered as the enemy of his religion; and, with that gloomy resolution, he came over into England in the disguise of a soldier, with the assumed name of Captain Fortescue. He

bent his endeavours to bring about at once the project of an assassination, an insurrection, and an invasion. The first person he addressed himself to was Anthony Babington, of Dethick, in the county of Derby, a young gentleman of good family, and possessed of a very plentiful fortune. This person had been long remarkable for his zeal in the Catholic cause, and his attachment to the captive queen. He, therefore, came readily into the plot, and procured the concurrence and assistance of some other associates in this dangerous undertaking; Barnwell, a person of a noble family in Ireland; Charnock, a gentleman of Lancashire; Abington, whose father had been cofferer to the household; and, chief of all, John Savage, a man of desperate fortune, who had served in the Low Countries, and came into England under a vow to destroy the queen. He indeed did not seem to desire any associate in the bold enterprise, and refused for some time to permit any to share with him in what he esteemed his greatest glory. He challenged the whole to himself; and it was with some difficulty that he was induced to depart from his preposterous ambition. The next step was to apprise Mary of the conspiracy formed in her favour; and this they effected by conveying their letters to her (by means of a brewer that supplied the family with ale) through a chink in the wall of her apartment. In these, Babington informed her of a design laid for a foreign invasion, the plan of an insurrection at home, the scheme for her deliverance, and the conspiracy for assassinating the usurper, by six noble gentlemen, as he termed them, all of them his private friends, who, from the zeal which they bore to the Catholic cause, and her majesty's service, would undertake the tragical execution. To these Mary re-

plied, that she approved highly of the design; that the gentlemen might expect all the rewards which it should ever be in her power to confer; and that the death of Elizabeth was a necessary circumstance, previous to any farther attempts either for her deliverance or the intended insurrection.

By the vigilance of Elizabeth's council the designs of the conspirators were frustrated; and the execution of the projectors only prepared the way for one of still greater importance, in which a captive queen was to submit to the unjust decisions of those who had no right but that of power, to condemn her. Though all England was acquainted with the detection of Babington's conspiracy, every avenue to the unfortunate Mary was so strictly guarded, that she remained in utter ignorance of the whole matter. But her astonishment was equal to her anguish, when Sir Thomas Gorges, by Elizabeth's order, came to inform her of the fate of her unhappy confederates. She was at that time mounted on horseback, going to hunt; and was not permitted to return to her former place of abode, but conducted from one gentleman's house to another, till she was lodged in Fotheringay castle, in Northamptonshire, where the last scene of her miserable tragedy was to be performed.

The council of England was divided in opinion about the measures to be taken against the Queen of Scots. Some members proposed, that, as her health was very infirm, her life might be shortened by close confinement; and the Earl of Leicester advised that she should be despatched by poison; but the majority insisted on her being put to death by legal process. Accordingly a commission was issued for forty-one peers, with five judges, or the major part of them, to try and pass sentence upon Mary, daughter and heir

of James the Fifth, King of Scotland, commonly called Queen of Scots, and Dowager of France.

Sentence of death was ultimately pronounced against her, in the Star-chamber in Westminster, all the commissioners except two being present. At the same time a declaration was published by the commissioners, implying, that the sentence against her did in no wise derogate from the title and honour of James, King of Scotland, son to the attainted queen.

Though the condemnation of a sovereign princess at a tribunal to which she owed no subjection, was an injustice that must strike the most inattentive, yet the parliament of England did not fail to approve the sentence, and to go still farther, in presenting an address to the queen, desiring that it might speedily be put into execution. But Elizabeth still felt, or pretended to feel, a horror for such precipitate severity. She entreated the two houses to find some expedient to save her from the necessity of taking a step so repugnant to her inclination. But at the same time she seemed to dread another conspiracy to assassinate her within a month; which probably was only an artifice of her ministers to increase her apprehensions, and, consequently, her desire of being rid of a rival that had given her so much disturbance. The parliament, however, reiterated their solicitations, arguments, and entreaties; and even remonstrated, that mercy to the Queen of Scots was cruelty to them, her subjects, and her children. Elizabeth affected to continue inflexible, but at the same time permitted Mary's sentence to be made public; and Lord Buckhurst, and Beale, clerk to the council, were sent to the unhappy queen to apprize her of the sentence, and of the popular clamour for its speedy execution.

Upon receiving this dreadful information, Mary

seemed no way moved; but insisted, that since her death was demanded by the Protestants, she died a martyr to the Catholic religion. She said, that as the English often embued their hands in the blood of their own sovereigns, it was not to be wondered at that they exercised their cruelty towards her. She wrote her last letter to Elizabeth, not demanding her life, which she now seemed willing to part with, but desiring that, after her enemies should be satiated with her innocent blood, her body might be consigned to her servants, and conveyed to France, there to repose in a Catholic country, with the sacred remains of her mother.

Whether the queen was really sincere in her reluctance to execute Mary, is a question which, though usually given against her, it is, perhaps, difficult to determine. Certainly there were great arts used by her courtiers to determine her to the side of severity, as they had every thing to fear from the resentment of Mary, in case of her succeeding to the throne. Accordingly, the kingdom was now filled with rumours of plots, treasons, and insurrections; and the queen was continually kept in alarm by fictitious dangers. She therefore appeared to be in great terror and perplexity; she was observed to sit much alone, and to mutter to herself half sentences, importing the difficulty and distress to which she was reduced. In this situation she one day called her secretary, Davidson, whom she ordered to draw out secretly the warrant for Mary's execution, informing him, that she intended to keep it by her in case any attempt should be made for the delivery of that princess. She signed the warrant, and then commanded it to be carried to the chancellor to have the seal affixed to it. Next morning, how-

ever, she sent two gentlemen successively to desire that Davidson would not go to the chancellor, until she should see him; but the secretary telling her that the warrant had been already sealed, she seemed displeased at his precipitation. Davidson, who probably wished to see the sentence executed, laid the affair before the council, who unanimously resolved, that the warrant should be immediately put in execution, and promised to justify Davidson to the queen. Accordingly, the fatal instrument was delivered to Beale, who summoned the noblemen to whom it was directed, namely, the Earls of Shrewsbury, Derby, Kent, and Cumberland; and these together set out for Fotheringay castle, accompanied by two executioners, to despatch their bloody commission.

Mary heard of the arrival of the executioners, who ordered her to prepare for death by eight o'clock the next morning. Without any alarm, she heard the death-warrant read with her usual composure, though she could not help expressing her surprise, that the queen of England should consent to her execution. She even abjured her being privy to any conspiracy against Elizabeth, by laying her hand upon a New Testament, which happened to lie on the table. She desired that her confessor might be permitted to attend her; which, however, these zealots refused. After the earls had retired, she ate sparingly at supper, while she comforted her attendants (who continued weeping and lamenting the fate of their mistress) with a cheerful countenance, telling them they ought not to mourn, but to rejoice, at the prospect of her speedy deliverance from a world of misery. Towards the end of supper, she called in all her servants, and drank to them; they pledged her in order on their knees, and

craved her pardon for any past neglect of duty. She craved mutual forgiveness; and a plentiful effusion of tears attended this last solemn separation.

After this she reviewed her will, and perused the inventory of her effects. These she bequeathed to different individuals, and divided her money among her domestics, recommending them in letters to the King of France and the Duke of Guise. Then going to bed at her usual hour, she passed part of the night in uninterrupted repose, and, rising, spent the remainder in prayer and acts of devotion. Towards morning she dressed herself in a rich habit of silk and velvet, the only one which she had reserved for this solemn occasion. Thomas Andrews, the under-sheriff of the county, then entering the room, informed her that the hour was come, and that he must attend her to the place of execution. She replied, that she was ready; and, bidding her servants farewell, she proceeded, supported by two of her guards, and followed the sheriff with a serene composed aspect, with a long veil of linen on her head, and in her hand a crucifix of ivory. In passing through a hall adjoining to her chamber, Sir Andrew Melvil, master of her household, fell upon his knees, and, shedding a flood of tears, lamented his misfortune in being doomed to carry the news of her unhappy fate to Scotland. "Lament not," said she, "but rather rejoice. Mary Stuart will soon be freed from all her cares. Tell my friends that I die constant in my religion, and firm in my affection and fidelity to Scotland and France. God forgive them that have long-desired my end, and have thirsted for my blood as the hart panteth for the water-brook!—Thou, O God, who art truth itself, and perfectly understandest the inmost thoughts of my heart, knowest

how greatly I have desired that the realms of Scotland and England might be united. Commend me to my son, and assure him I have done nothing prejudicial to the state or the crown of Scotland. Admonish him to persevere in amity and friendship with the queen of England; and, for thy own part, do him faithful service. And so, good Melvil, farewell; once again farewell, good Melvil, and grant the assistance of thy prayers to thy queen and thy mistress." In this place she was received by the four noblemen, who with great difficulty were prevailed upon to allow Melvil, with her physician, apothecary, and two female attendants, to be present at her execution. She then passed (the noblemen and the sheriff going before, and Melvil bearing up her train) into another hall, where was a scaffold erected, and covered with black. As soon as she was seated, Beale began to read the warrant for her execution. Then Fletcher, dean of Peterborough, standing without the rails, repeated a long exhortation, which she desired him to forbear, as she was firmly resolved to die in the catholic religion. The room was crowded with spectators, who beheld her with pity and distress, while her beauty, though dimmed by age and affliction, gleamed through her sufferings, and was still remarkable in this fatal moment. The Earl of Kent, observing that in her devotions she made frequent use of the crucifix, could not forbear reproving her, exhorting her to have Christ in her heart, not in her hand. She replied, with presence of mind, that it was difficult to hold such an object in her hand, without feeling her heart touched for the sufferings of him whom it represented. She now began, with the aid of her two women, to undress for the block; and the executioner also lent his hand to assist them. She

smiled, and said that she was not accustomed to undress herself before so large a company, or to be attended by such servants. Her women bursting into tears and loud exclamations of sorrow, she turned about to them; put her finger upon her lips, as a sign of imposing silence upon them; and, having given them her blessing, desired their prayers in return. The two executioners kneeling, and asking her pardon, she said she forgave them, and all the authors of her death, as freely as she hoped forgiveness of her Maker; and once more made a solemn protestation of her innocence. Her eyes were then covered with a linen handkerchief; she laid herself down without any fear or trepidation; and when she had recited a psalm, and repeated a pious ejaculation, her head was severed from her body at two strokes. The executioner instantly held it up to the spectators, streaming with blood, and agitated with the convulsions of death. The Dean of Peterborough alone exclaimed, "So perish all queen Elizabeth's enemies!" The Earl of Kent replied Amen, while the rest of the spectators wept and sighed at this affecting spectacle; for flattery and zeal alike gave place to stronger and better emotions.

The designs meditated against England, by Philip of Spain, roused Elizabeth from the stupor into which the execution of Mary appeared to have thrown her. Nothing could exceed the terror and consternation which all ranks of people felt in England, upon the news of the terrible Armada, the Spanish fleet, being under sail to invade them. A fleet of not above thirty ships of war, and those very small in comparison, was all that was to oppose it by sea; and as for resisting by land, that was supposed to be impos-

sible, as the Spanish army was composed of men well disciplined, and long inured to danger. The queen alone seemed undismayed in this threatening calamity: she issued all her orders with tranquillity; animated her people to a steady resistance; and the more to excite the martial spirit of the nation, she appeared on horseback in the camp at Tilbury, exhorting the soldiers to their duty, and promising to share the same dangers and the same fate with them. "I myself," cried she, "will be your general, your judge, and the rewarder of every one of your virtues in the field. Your alacrity has already deserved its rewards; and, on the word of a prince, they shall be duly paid you. Persevere then in your obedience to command; shew your valour in the field; and we shall soon have a glorious victory over those enemies of my God, my kingdom, and my people." The soldiers with shouts proclaimed their ardour, and only wished to be led on to conquest.

Nor were her preparations by sea driven on with less alacrity: although the English fleet was much inferior in number and size of shipping to that of the enemy, yet it was much more manageable, the dexterity and courage of the mariners being greatly superior.

While the Spanish Armada was preparing to sail, the admiral, Santa Cruz, died, as likewise the vice-admiral Paliano; and the command of the expedition was given to the Duke de Medina Sidonia, a person utterly inexperienced in sea affairs; and this, in some measure, served to frustrate the design. But some other accidents also contributed to its failure. Upon leaving the port of Lisbon, the Armada next day met with a violent tempest, which sunk some of the

smallest of the shipping, and obliged the fleet to put back into harbour. After some time spent in refitting, they again put to sea, where they took a fisherman, who gave them intelligence that the English fleet, hearing of the dispersion of the Armada in a storm, had retired into Plymouth harbour, and that most of the mariners were discharged. From this false intelligence, the Spanish admiral, instead of going directly to the coast of Flanders to take in the troops stationed there, as he had been instructed, resolved to sail to Plymouth, and destroy the shipping laid up in that harbour. But Effingham, the English admiral, was very well prepared to receive them; he had just weighed anchor, when he saw the Spanish Armada coming full sail towards him, disposed in the form of a half moon, and stretching seven miles from one extremity to the other. However, the English admiral, with Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher, attacked the Armada at a distance, pouring in their broadsides with admirable dexterity. They did not choose to engage the enemy more closely, because they were greatly inferior in the number of ships, guns, and weight of metal; nor could they pretend to board such lofty ships without manifest disadvantage. However, two Spanish galleons were disabled and taken. As the Armada advanced up the Channel, the English still followed and infested its rear; and their fleet continually increasing from different ports, they soon found themselves in a capacity to attack the Spaniards more nearly; and accordingly fell upon them while they were taking shelter in the port of Calais. To increase their confusion, Howard took eight of his smaller ships, and, filling them with combustible materials, sent them, as if they had been fire-ships, one

after the other, into the midst of the enemy. The Spaniards, taking them for what they seemed to be, immediately took flight in great disorder; while the English, profiting by their panic, took or destroyed about twelve of the enemy's ships. Thus, under circumstances the most discouraging, the English succeeded in destroying the vast armament of Spain; and the remnant of the enemy's hosts returned home with little inclination to attempt a fresh invasion.

These disasters of the Spanish Armada served only to excite the spirit and courage of the English to attempt invasions in their turn. It would be endless to relate all the advantages obtained over the enemy at sea, where the capture of every ship must have been made a separate narrative; or their various descents upon different parts of the coast, which were attended with effects too transient for the page of history. It is sufficient to observe, that the sea-captains of that reign are still considered as the boldest and most enterprising set of men that England ever produced; and among this number we reckon our Raleigh and Howard, our Drake, our Cavendish, and Hawkins. The English navy then began to take the lead, and has since continued irresistible in all parts of the ocean.

Of those who made the most signal figure in these depredations upon Spain, was the young Earl of Essex, a nobleman of great bravery, generosity, and genius; and fitted, not only for the foremost ranks in war by his valour, but to conduct the intrigues of a court by his eloquence and address. But, with all these endowments both of body and mind, he wanted prudence; being impetuous, haughty, and totally incapable of advice or control. The Earl of Leicester

had died some time before, and now left room in the queen's affections for a new favourite, which she was not long in choosing, since the merit, the bravery, and the popularity of Essex, were too great not to engage her attention. Elizabeth, though she rejected a husband, yet appeared always passionately desirous of a lover; and flattery had rendered her so insensible to her want of beauty, and the depredations of age, that she still thought herself as powerful by her personal accomplishments as by her authority. The new favourite was young, active, ambitious, witty, and handsome; in the field, and at court, he always appeared with superior lustre. In all the masques which were then performed, he and Elizabeth were generally coupled as partners; and although she was older by thirty-four years than the earl, her vanity overlooked the disparity; the world told her that she was young, and she herself was willing to think so. This young earl's interest in the queen affections, as may naturally be supposed, promoted his interest in the state; and he conducted all things at his discretion. But, young and inexperienced as he was, he at length began to fancy that the popularity he possessed, and the flatteries he received, were given to his merits, and not to his favour. His jealousy also of Lord Burleigh, who was his only rival in power, made him still more intractable; and the many successes he had obtained against the Spaniards increased his confidence. In a debate before the queen, between him and Burleigh, about the choice of a governor for Ireland, he was so heated in the argument, that he entirely forgot the rules both of duty and civility. He turned his back on the queen in a contemptuous manner; which so provoked her

resentment, that she instantly gave him a box on the ear. Instead of recollecting himself, and making the submissions due to her sex and station, he clapped his hand to his sword, and swore he would not bear such usage even from her father. This offence, though very great, was overlooked by the queen; her partiality was so prevalent, that she reinstated him in her former favour, and her kindness seemed only to increase as occasions arose for anger and resentment.

The leading characteristics in the disposition of Essex seem to have been an enthusiastic daring of mind and a readiness to indulge resentment. After having given the queen many causes for anger, he resolved, by the assistance of his friend Southampton, to promote a conspiracy for the removal of the queen's ministers, regarding them as the secret abettors of her majesty's displeasure towards him. This wild project failed, as indeed might well be expected, and Essex and Southampton were immediately carried to the archbishop's palace at Lambeth, whence they were next day conveyed to the Tower, and tried by their peers on the nineteenth of February. Little could be urged in their defence; their guilt was too flagrant; and, though it deserved pity, it could not meet an acquittal. Essex, after condemnation, was visited by that religious horror which seemed to attend him in all his disgraces. He was terrified almost to despair by the ghostly remonstrances of his own chaplain; he was reconciled to his enemies, and made a full confession of his conspiracy. It was alleged upon this occasion that he had strong hopes of pardon, from the irresolution which the queen seemed to discover before she signed the warrant for his execution.

She had given him formerly a ring, which she desired him to send her in any emergency of this nature, and that it should procure his safety and protection. This ring was actually sent to her by the Countess of Nottingham, who, being a concealed enemy to the unfortunate earl, never delivered it; while Elizabeth was secretly fired at his obstinacy in making no applications for mercy and forgiveness. The fact is, she appeared herself as much an object of pity as the unfortunate nobleman she was induced to condemn. She signed the warrant for his execution; she countermanded it; she again resolved on his death, and again felt a new return of tenderness. At last she gave her consent to his execution, and was never seen to enjoy one happy day more.

With the death of her favourite Essex, all Elizabeth's pleasures seemed to expire: she afterwards went through the business of the state merely from habit; but her satisfactions were no more. She had fallen into a profound melancholy, which all the advantages of her high fortune, all the glories of her prosperous reign, were unable to remove. She had now found out the falsehood of the Countess of Nottingham; who, on her death-bed, sent for the queen, and informed her of the fatal circumstance of the ring, which she had neglected to deliver. This information only served to awaken that passion which the queen had vainly endeavoured to suppress. She shook the dying Countess in her bed, crying out, that "God might pardon her, but she never would." She then broke from her, and resigned herself to the dictates of her fixed despair. She refused food and sustenance; she continued silent and gloomy; sighs and groans were the only vent she

gave to her despondence; and she lay for ten days and nights upon the carpet, leaning on cushions which her maids brought her. Perhaps the faculties of her mind were impaired by long and violent exercise; perhaps she reflected with remorse on some past actions of her life, or perceived but too strongly the decay of nature and the approach of her dissolution. She saw her courtiers remitting their assiduity to her, in order to pay their court to James, the apparent successor. Such a concurrence of causes was more than sufficient to destroy the remains of her constitution; and her end visibly approached. Feeling a perpetual heat in her stomach, attended with an unquenchable thirst, she drank without ceasing, but refused the assistance of her physicians. Her distemper gaining ground, Sir Robert Cecil, and the Lord Admiral, desired to know her sentiments with regard to the succession. To this she replied, that as the crown of England had always been held by kings, it ought not to devolve upon any inferior character, but upon her immediate heir, the king of Scotland. Being then advised by the Archbishop of Canterbury to fix her thoughts upon God, she replied that her thoughts did not in the least wander from him. Her voice soon after left her; she fell into a lethargic slumber, which continued some hours, and she expired gently without a groan in the seventieth year of her age, and the forty-fifth of her reign. Her character differed with her circumstances; in the beginning she was moderate and humble; towards the end of her reign, haughty and severe. But ever prudent, active, and discerning, she procured for her subjects that happiness which was not entirely felt by those about her. She was indebted to her good fortune, that her

ministers were excellent ; but it was owing to her indiscretion that the favourites, who were more immediately chosen by herself, were unworthy. Though she was possessed of excellent sense, she never had the discernment to discover that she wanted beauty ; and to flatter her charms at the age of sixty-five, was the surest road to her favour and esteem.

The reign of Elizabeth was a glorious æra in the history of this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, a man of literary eminence, colonized New England at his own expense. Commerce was greatly improved and the arts of civilized life were rapidly advancing. And learning and science were cultivated by an assemblage of men so eminent, that the time of Elizabeth has been fixed by some writers as the Augustan age of England.

THE HOUSE OF STUART.

MEMORIAL VERSES.

The first James-mectenod to Eliza succeeded;
Charles the first-mecasode was tried and beheaded.
 In the commonwealth, *Cromwell-mecupod* was lord;
Charles the second-mecubid to the throne was restored.
The second James-mocdis the sceptre laid down,
 And *William of Orange* ascended the throne.

JAMES I. SON OF MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

The first James-mectenod to Eliza succeeded.

JAMES, the Sixth of Scotland and the First of England, the son of Mary, came to the throne with the approbation of all orders of the state, as in his person was united every claim that either descent, bequest, or parliamentary sanction, could confer. He had every reason, therefore, to hope for a happy reign; and he was taught, from his infancy, that his prerogative was uncontrollable, and his right transmitted from heaven. These sentiments he took no care to conceal; and even published them in many parts of those works which he had written before he left Scotland.

James had scarcely entered England when he gave disgust to many. The desire in all to see their new sovereign was ardent and natural; but the king, who loved retirement, forbade the concourse that attended on his journey from Scotland, pretending that this

great resort of people would produce a scarcity of provisions. To this offence to the people he added, soon after, what gave disgust to the higher orders of the state, by prostituting titles of honour, so that they became so common as to be no longer marks of distinction. A pasquinade was fixed up at St. Paul's, declaring that there would be a lecture given on the art of assisting short memories, to retain the names of the new nobility.

Numberless were the disputes between the king and his parliament during this reign; the one striving to keep the privileges of the crown entire, the other aiming at abridging the dangerous part of the prerogative; the one labouring to preserve customs established from time immemorial, the other equally assiduous in defending the inherent privileges of humanity. Thus we see laudable motives actuating the disputants on both sides of the question, and the principles of both founded either in law or in reason. When the parliament would not grant a subsidy, James had examples enough among his predecessors, which taught him to extort a benevolence. Edward the fourth, Henry the eighth, and Queen Elizabeth herself, had often done so; and precedent undoubtedly entitled him to the same privilege. On the other hand, the house of commons, who found their growing power to protect the people, and not suffer the impositions of the crown, considered that this extorted benevolence might at length render the sovereign entirely independent of the parliament, and therefore complained of it, as an infringement of their privileges. These attempts of the crown, and these murmurings of the commons, continued through this whole reign, and first gave rise to that spirit of party which

has ever since subsisted in England: the one for preserving the ancient constitution, by maintaining the prerogative of the king; the other for trying an experiment to improve it, by extending the liberties of the people.

A project was contrived in the very beginning of this reign for the re-establishment of popery, which, were it not a fact known to all the world, could scarcely be credited by posterity. This was the gunpowder plot; than which a more horrid or terrible scheme never entered into the human heart to conceive; and which shews at once that the most determined courage may be united with the most execrable intentions.

The Roman Catholics had expected great favour and indulgence on the accession of James, both as a descendant from Mary, a rigid catholic, and also from his having shewn some partiality to that religion in his youth. But they soon discovered their mistake, and were at once surprised and enraged to find James on all occasions express his resolution of strictly executing the laws enacted against them, and of persevering in the conduct of his predecessor. This declaration determined them upon more desperate measures; and they at length formed a resolution of destroying the king and both houses of parliament at a blow. The scheme was first broached by Robert Catesby, a gentleman of good parts and ancient family, who conceived that a train of gunpowder might be so placed under the parliament-house, as to blow up the king and all the members at once! He opened his intention to Thomas Percy, a descendant from the illustrious house of Northumberland, who was charmed with the project, and readily came into it. Thomas Winter was next intrusted with the dreadful secret;

and he went over to Flanders in quest of Guy Fawkes, an officer in the Spanish service, with whose zeal and courage the conspirators were thoroughly acquainted. When they enlisted any new zealot into their plot, the more firmly to bind him to secrecy, they always, together with an oath, employed the sacrament, the most sacred rite of religion. Every tender feeling, and all pity, were banished from their breasts; and Garnet, a Jesuit, superior of the order in England, absolved their consciences from every scruple.

How horrid soever the contrivance might appear, every member seemed faithful and secret in the league; and they hired a house in Percy's name, adjoining to that in which the parliament was to assemble. Their first intention was to bore a way under the parliament-house, from that which they occupied, and they set themselves laboriously to the task; but when they had pierced the wall, which was three yards in thickness, they were surprised to find, on approaching the other side, that the house was vaulted underneath, and that coals were usually deposited there. From their disappointment on this account they were soon relieved, by information that the coals were in a course of sale, and that the vault would be then let to the highest bidder. They therefore seized the opportunity of hiring the place, and bought the remaining quantity of coals with which it was then stored, as if for their own use. The next thing done was to convey thither thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, which had been purchased in Holland; and the whole was covered with the coals, and with faggots brought for that purpose. Then the doors of the cellar were boldly flung open, and every body admitted, as if it contained nothing dangerous.

Confident of success, they now began to plan the remaining part of their project. The king, the queen, and prince Henry, the king's eldest son, were all expected to be present at the opening of the parliament. The king's second son, by reason of his tender age, would be absent, and it was resolved that Percy should seize or assassinate him. The Princess Elizabeth, a child likewise, was kept at Lord Harrington's house, in Warwickshire; and Sir Eyerard Digby was to seize her, and immediately proclaim her queen.

The day for the sitting of parliament now approached. Never was treason more secret, or ruin more apparently inevitable; the hour was expected with impatience, and the conspirators gloried in their meditated guilt. The dreadful secret, though communicated to above twenty persons had been religiously kept during the space of near a year and a half; but, when all the motives of pity, justice, and safety, were too weak, a remorse of private friendship saved the kingdom.

Percy, one of the conspirators, had conceived a design of saving the life of Lord Monteagle, his intimate friend and companion, who also was of the same persuasion as himself. About ten days before the meeting of parliament, this nobleman, upon his return to town, received a letter from a person unknown, and delivered by one who fled as soon as he had discharged his message. The letter was to this effect: "My lord, stay away from this parliament; for God and man have concurred to punish the wickedness of the times. And think not slightly of this advertisement, but retire yourself into your country, where you may expect the event in safety. For though there be no appearance of any stir, yet I say

they will receive a terrible blow this parliament; and yet they shall not see who hurts them. This counsel is not to be contemned; because it may do you good, and can do you no harm. For the danger is past as soon as you have burned this letter."

The contents of this mysterious letter surprised and puzzled the nobleman to whom it was addressed; and though inclined to think it a foolish attempt to fright and ridicule him, yet he judged it safest to carry it to Lord Salisbury, secretary of state. That minister was also inclined to give little attention to it, yet thought proper to lay it before the king, who came to town a few days after. None of the council were able to make any thing of it, although it appeared serious and alarming. In this universal agitation between doubt and apprehension, the king was the first who penetrated the meaning of this dark epistle. He concluded that some sudden danger was preparing by gunpowder; and it was thought advisable to inspect all the vaults below the houses of parliament. This care belonged to the Earl of Suffolk, lord chamberlain, who purposely delayed the search till the day before the meeting of parliament. He remarked those great piles of faggots which lay in the vault under the house of peers; and he cast his eye upon Fawkes, who stood in a dark corner, and who passed himself for Percy's servant. That daring determined courage for which he had long been noted, even among the desperate, was fully painted in his countenance, and struck the lord chamberlain with strong suspicion. The great quantity of fuel also kept there for the use of a person seldom in town, did not pass unnoticed; and he resolved to take his time, to make a more exact scrutiny. About midnight, therefore, Sir Thomas Knevet, a

justice of the peace, was sent, with proper attendants; and just at the entrance of the vault he seized a man preparing for the terrible enterprise, dressed in a cloak and boots, with a dark lantern in his hand. This was no other than Guy Fawkes, who had just disposed every part of the train for its taking fire the next morning; the matches and other combustibles being found in his pockets. The whole of the design was now discovered; but the atrociousness of his guilt, and the despair of pardon, inspiring him with resolution, he told the officers of justice, with an undaunted air, that had he blown them and himself up together, he had been happy. Before the council he displayed the same intrepid firmness, mixed even with scorn and disdain; refusing to discover his associates, and shewing no concern but for the failure of his enterprise. But his bold spirit was at length subdued; being confined in the Tower for two or three days, and the rack just shewn him, his courage, fatigued with so long an effort, at last failed him, and he made a full discovery of all his accomplices.

Catesby, Percy, and the conspirators who were in London, hearing that Fawkes was arrested, fled with all speed into Warwickshire, where Sir Everard Digby, relying on the success of the plot, was already in arms, in order to seize the princess Elizabeth. But the country soon began to take the alarm: and wherever they turned, they found a superior force ready to oppose them. In this exigency, beset on all sides, they resolved, to about the number of eighty persons, to fly no farther, but make a stand at a house in Warwickshire, to defend it to the last, and sell their lives as dearly as possible. But even this miserable consolation was denied them: a spark of fire hap-

pening to fall among some gunpowder that was laid to dry, it blew up, and so maimed the principal conspirators, that the survivors resolved to open the gate, and sally out against the multitude that surrounded the house. Some were instantly cut to pieces; Catesby, Percy, and Winter, standing back to back, fought long and desperately, till in the end the two first fell covered with wounds, and Winter was taken alive. Those who survived the slaughter, were tried and convicted; several fell by the hands of the executioner, and others experienced the king's mercy. The Jesuits, Garnet and Oldcorn, who were privy to the plot, suffered with the rest; and, notwithstanding the atrociousness of their treason, Garnet was considered by his party as a martyr, and miracles were said to have been wrought by his blood.

Such was the end of a conspiracy that brought ruin on its contrivers, and utterly supplanted that religion it was intended to establish. Yet it is remarkable, that before this audacious attempt, the chief conspirators had borne a fair reputation: Catesby was loved by all his acquaintance; and Digby was as highly respected, both for his honour and integrity, as any man in the nation. However, such are the lengths to which superstition and early prejudice can drive minds originally well formed, but impressed by a wrong direction.

The opposition which James met with from his people, made him place his affections upon different persons about the court, whom he rewarded with a liberality that bordered on profusion. The death of prince Henry, a youth of great hopes, gave him no very great uneasiness, as his affections were rather taken up by newer connexions. In the first rank of

these stood Robert Carre, a youth of good family in Scotland, who, after having passed some time in his travels, arrived in London, at about twenty years of age. All his natural accomplishments consisted in a pleasing visage; all his acquired abilities, in an easy and graceful demeanor. This youth came to England with letters of recommendation, to see his countryman, Lord Hay; and that nobleman took an opportunity of assigning him the office of presenting the king his buckler at a match of tilting. When Carre was advancing to execute his office, he was thrown by his horse, and his leg was broken in the king's presence.

James approached him with pity and concern, and ordered him to be lodged in the palace till his cure was completed. He himself, after tilting, paid him a visit in his chamber, and returned frequently during his confinement. The ignorance and simplicity of the youth confirmed the king's affections, as he disregarded learning in his favourites, of which he found very little use in his own practice. Carre was therefore considered as the most rising man at court; he was knighted, created Viscount Rochester, honoured with the order of the Garter, made a privy-counsellor; and, to raise him to the highest pitch of honour, he was at last created Earl of Somerset.

The favourite having established a criminal intercourse with the Countess of Essex, and being opposed in his licentious course by a person of the court, contrived at the instigation of the countess to effect his death by poison.

An apothecary's apprentice, who had been employed in making up the poison, having retired to Flushing, divulged the secret there; and the affair being thus laid before the king, he commanded Sir

Edward Coke, Lord Chief Justice, to sift the affair to the bottom, with rigorous impartiality. This injunction was executed with great industry and severity; and the whole complication of guilt carefully unravelled. The Lieutenant of the Tower, and some of the inferior criminals were condemned and executed; Somerset and his countess were soon after found guilty, but reprieved and pardoned after some years of strict confinement. The king's duplicity and injustice on this occasion are urged as very great stains upon his character. Somerset was in his presence at the time the officer of justice came to apprehend him; and boldly reprehended that minister's presumption for daring to arrest a peer of the realm before the king. But James, being informed of the cause, said with a smile, "Nay, nay, you must go: for, if Coke should send for myself, I must comply." He then embraced him at parting, begged he would return immediately, and assured him he could not live without his company: and yet he had no sooner turned his back, than he exclaimed, "Go, and the devil go with thee! I shall never see thy face again." He was also heard to wish, some time after, that God's curse might fall upon him and his family, if he should pardon those whom the law should condemn.

However, he afterwards restored them both to liberty, and granted them a pension, with which they retired, and languished out the remainder of their lives in guilt, infamy, and mutual recrimination.

But the king had not been so improvident as to part with one favourite before he had provided himself with another. This was George Villiers, a younger brother of a good family, who had returned from his travels, and whom the enemies of Somerset had taken

occasion to throw in the king's way, certain that his beauty and fashionable manners would do the rest. Accordingly, he had been placed in a comedy full in the king's view, and immediately caught the monarch's affections. The history of the time, which appears not without some degree of malignity against this monarch, does not however insinuate any thing flagitious in these connexions, but imputes his attachment rather to a weakness of understanding than to any perversion of appetite. Villiers was immediately taken into the king's service, and the office of cup-bearer was bestowed upon him. It was in vain that Somerset had used all his interest to depress him; his stern jealousy only served the more to interest the king in the young man's behalf.

After Somerset's fall, the favour of James was wholly turned upon young Villiers; in the course of a few years he created him Viscount Villiers, Earl, Marquis, and Duke of Buckingham, Knight of the Garter, Master of the Horse, Chief Justice in Eyre, Warden of the Cinque Ports, Master of the King's Bench Office, Steward of Westminster, Constable of Windsor, and Lord High Admiral of England. His mother obtained the title of Countess of Buckingham; his brother was created Viscount Purbeck; and a numerous train of needy relations were all pushed up into credit and authority. It may, indeed, be reckoned among the most capricious circumstances of this monarch's reign, that he, who was bred a scholar, should choose for his favourites the most illiterate persons about his court; that he, whose personal courage was greatly suspected, should lavish his honours upon those whose only accomplishments were a skill in the warlike exercises of the times.

When unworthy favourites were thus advanced, it is not to be wondered at if the public concerns of the kingdom were neglected, and men of real merit left to contempt and misery. The brave and learned Raleigh had been confined in the Tower almost from the beginning of James's accession, for a conspiracy which had never been proved against him; and in that abode of wretchedness he wrote several valuable performances, which are still in the highest esteem. His long sufferings, and ingenious writings, had now turned the tide of popular opinion in his favour; and they who once detested the enemy of Essex, could not help pitying the long captivity of this philosophical soldier. He himself still struggled for freedom; and perhaps it was with this desire that he spread the report of his having discovered a gold-mine in Guiana, which was sufficient not only to enrich the adventurers that should seize it, but to afford immense treasures to the nation. The king, either believing his assertions, or willing to subject him to farther disgrace, granted him a commission to try his fortune in quest of these golden schemes; but still reserved his former sentence as a check upon his future behaviour.

Raleigh was not long in making preparations for this adventure, which, from the sanguine manner in which he carried it on, many believed he thought to be as promising as he described it. He bent his course to Guiana; and remaining himself at the mouth of the river Oroonoko with five of the largest ships, he sent the rest up the stream, under the command of his son and of Captain Keymis, a person entirely devoted to his interests. But instead of a country abounding in gold, as the adventurers were taught to expect, they found the Spaniards warned of their ap-

proach, and prepared in arms to receive them. Young Raleigh, to encourage his men, called out that "This was the true mine," meaning the town of St. Thomas, which he was approaching; "and that none but fools looked for any other:" but just as he was speaking, he received a shot, of which he immediately expired. This was followed by another disappointment; for, when the English took possession of the town, they found nothing in it of any value.

Raleigh, in this forlorn situation, found now that all his hopes were over: and saw his misfortunes aggravated by the reproaches of those whom he had undertaken to command. Nothing could be more deplorable than his situation, particularly when he was told that he must be carried back to England to answer for his conduct to the king. It is pretended that he employed many artifices, first to engage his men to attack the Spanish settlements at a time of peace; and on failure of that scheme, to make his escape into France. But all these proving unsuccessful, he was delivered into the king's hands, and strictly examined, as well as his fellow adventurers, before the privy-council. Count Gondomar, the Spanish Ambassador, made heavy complaints against the expedition: and the king declared that Raleigh had express orders to avoid all disputes and hostilities against the Spaniards: wherefore, to give the court of Spain a particular instance of his attachment, he signed a warrant for his execution, not for the present offence, but for his former conspiracy; thus shewing himself guilty of complicated injustice; unjust in originally having condemned him without proof; unjust in having trusted a man with a commission, without a pardon expressive of that confidence; unjust in punishing with death a transgression that did not deserve it: but most unjust of all, when he

refused a new trial, and condemned him upon an obsolete sentence. This great man died with the same fortitude that he had testified through life; he observed, as he felt the edge of the axe, that it was a sharp but a sure remedy for all evils; his harangue to the people was calm and eloquent; and he laid his head on the block with the utmost indifference. His death ensured him that popularity which his former intrepidity and his sufferings, so much greater than his crimes, had tended to procure him; and no measure in this reign was attended with so much public dissatisfaction. The death of this great man was soon followed by the disgrace of a still greater, namely, the Chancellor Bacon, who was accused of receiving bribes in his office; and pleading guilty, was degraded and fined forty thousand pounds; but his fine was afterwards remitted by the king.

The reasons for James's partiality to the court of Spain in the case of Raleigh soon became apparent. This monarch had entertained an opinion, which was peculiar to himself, that in marrying his son Charles, the Prince of Wales, any alliance below that of royalty would be unworthy of him; he therefore was obliged to seek, either in the court of France or Spain, a suitable match: and he was taught to think of the latter. Gondomar, perceiving this weak monarch's partiality to a crowned head, made an offer of the second daughter of Spain to Prince Charles: and that he might render the temptation irresistible, he gave hopes of an immense fortune which should attend the princess. However, this was a negociation which was not likely soon to be concluded; and from the time the idea was first started, James saw five years elapse without bringing the treaty to any kind of conclusion.

A delay of this kind was very displeasing to the king, who had all along an eye on the great fortune of the princess; nor was it less disagreeable to Prince Charles, who, bred up with ideas of romantic passion, was in love without ever seeing the object of his affections. In this general tedium of delay, a project entered the head of Villiers (who had for some years ruled the king with absolute authority) that was fitter to be conceived by the knight of a romance, than by a minister and a statesman. It was nothing less than that the prince should travel in disguise into Spain, and visit the object of his affections in person. Buckingham, who wished to ingratiate himself with the prince, offered to be his companion; and the king, whose business it was to check so wild a scheme, gave his consent to this hopeful proposal. Their adventures on this strange project could fill novels, and have actually been made the subject of many. Charles was the knight-errant, and Buckingham was his esquire. They travelled through France in disguise, assuming the names of Jack and Tom Smith. They went to a ball at Paris, where the prince first saw the princess Henrietta, whom he afterwards married, and who was then in the bloom of youth and beauty. They were received at the court of Spain with all possible demonstrations of respect; but Buckingham filled the whole city with intrigues, adventures, serenades, challenges, and jealousy. To complete the catalogue of his follies, he fell in love with the Countess of Olivarez, the prime minister's wife, and insulted that minister in person. These levities were not to be endured at such a court as that of Spain, where jealousy is so prevalent, and decorum so much observed; the match was therefore broken off. Historians do

not assign the reason; but if we may credit the novelists of that time, the prince had already fixed his affections upon the French princess.

James was now seized with a tertian ague, and when his courtiers assured him, from the proverb, that it was health for a king, he replied, that the proverb was meant for a young king. After some fits, he found himself extremely weakened, and sent for the prince, whom he exhorted to persevere in the Protestant religion; then preparing with decency and courage to meet his end, he expired, after a reign over England of twenty-two years, and in the fifty-ninth year of his age. With regard to foreign negociations, James neither understood nor cultivated them; and perhaps in a kingdom so situated as England, domestic politics are alone sufficient. His reign was marked with none of the splendours of triumph, nor with any new conquests or acquisitions: but the arts were nevertheless silently going on to improvement. Reason was extending her influence, and discovering to mankind a thousand errors in religion, in morals, and in government, that had long been revered by blind submission. The Reformation had produced a spirit of liberty, as well as of investigation, among all ranks of mankind, and taught them that no precedents could sanctify fraud, tyranny, or injustice. James taught them by his own example to argue upon the nature of the king's prerogative and the extent of the subject's liberty. He first began by setting up the prescriptive authority of kings against the natural privileges of the people; but when the subject was submitted to a controversy, it was soon seen that the monarch's was the weaker side.

CHARLES I. SON OF JAMES I.

Charles the first-mecasode was tried and beheaded.

CHARLES the First succeeded to the throne at a critical period, and with ideas of the royal prerogative little suited to the spirit of the times. As the parliament would not grant him supplies for carrying on the war in defence of the Elector of Germany, he dissolved it, and called another which was still less complying; he then endeavoured to raise money by loans from his subjects, by compounding with the Catholics for a suspension of the penal laws against them, and by levying ship-money. The contest between the king and the commons rose so high, that Charles again dissolved the parliament. At the same time, he felt a severe blow in the death of his minister the Duke of Buckingham, who was stabbed by one Felton, whilst standing on the quay at Portsmouth, giving orders relative to the embarkation of some troops. An attempt to introduce Episcopacy into Scotland involved Charles in a war with the Scots; when the parliament again refusing him supplies, he dissolved it and had recourse to arbitrary and unconstitutional measures. He was, however, obliged to call another parliament, which continued to sit till it had overthrown the Constitution. The new senate began its attack on the monarchy by opposing episcopacy, and the bishops, to avert the storm, no longer attended at the house of peers. Charles was led by his impetuosity to impeach Lord Kimbolton and others of high treason; he even attempted to arrest them in the house: failing however in this, and re-

flecting on the consequences of the measure, he made such concessions to the parliament, as rendered him contemptible. The king continued to comply with the increasing demands of the commons, till they required that the command of the army should be given up to them, when he could no longer contain his indignation, and his denial broke off all further treaty, and each party had recourse to arms. The king's party were called Cavaliers, and that of the parliament, Roundheads. After a series of victories and defeats, the battle of Naseby completed the overthrow of monarchy, and established the ascendancy of the parliament. To avoid being taken prisoner by his own subjects, Charles surrendered himself to the Scots, who *sold* him to his enemies.

Now that the civil war was ended, two religious parties appeared, one of whom, the Presbyterians, were for having clergy, but the other, which formed the majority of the army, and who were Independents, contended that every man had a right to instruct his fellows. At the head of the latter was Cromwell, son of a private gentleman at Huntingdon, who had obtained great preferment in the army. A military parliament was called; the officers forming a house of peers, and two soldiers from each company composing a house of commons. Charles had been confined a prisoner at Holmby castle, but Cromwell contrived to conduct him to the army, and by this manœuvre to procure for himself the supreme command. The presbyterian commons were divided amongst themselves, and part threw themselves under the protection of the army, which expelled their opponents from the house and reinstated them in their places. The commons appeared inclined to treat

with the king, but the army demanded vengeance on him. A party of military expelled from the house all the presbyterian members, and the remainder, who were furious independents, were called the Rump. This remnant of a parliament instituted a High Court of Justice to try the king for high treason, in levying war against his parliament. After enduring much suffering from this mockery of justice, and the gross insults of the populace as he passed to and from the tribunal, he was sentenced to be beheaded.

The circumstances attending the trial and execution of Charles, deserve to be minutely detailed. They exhibit a melancholy picture of the dangers to which a monarch subjects himself by stretching the royal prerogative beyond due bounds, and by adopting, or giving countenance to, unconstitutional measures; while they also show the ungovernable excesses of a people wholly relieved from all wholesome control, and the vile machinations of those hypocritical demagogues who contemplate in the destruction of monarchy nothing beyond the advancement of their own views, and a free exercise of their own tyranny.

The interval, from the sixth to the twentieth of January, 1649, was spent in making preparations for this extraordinary trial. The court of justice consisted of a hundred and thirty-three persons named by the commons; but of these never above seventy met on the trial. The members who attended were the chief officers of the army, most of them of very mean birth, together with some of the lower house, and a few citizens of London. Bradshaw, a lawyer, was chosen president: Coke was appointed solicitor for the people of England; Dorislaus, Steele, and Aske, were named assistants. The court sat in Westminster-hall.

The king was now conducted from Windsor to St. James's, and the next day was brought before the high court to take his trial. While the crier was calling over the names of the commissioners for trying him, nobody answering for Lord Fairfax, a female voice from the gallery was heard to cry out, "He has more wit than to be here." When the impeachment was read in the name of the people of England, the same voice exclaimed, "No, nor a tenth part of them." Axtel, the officer who guarded the court, giving orders to fire into the box from whence the voice proceeded, it was discovered that these bold answers came from the Lady Fairfax, who alone had courage to condemn their proceedings.

When the king was brought before the court, he was conducted by the mace-bearer to a chair placed within the bar. Though long detained a prisoner, and now produced as a criminal, he still sustained the dignity of a king; he surveyed the members of the court with a stern haughty air; and, without moving his hat, sat down, while the members also were covered. His charge was then read by the solicitor, accusing him of having been the cause of all the bloodshed which followed since the commencement of the war: at that part of the charge he could not suppress a smile of contempt and indignation. After the charge was finished, Bradshaw directed his discourse to the king, and told him that the court expected his answer.

The king with great temper entered upon his defence, by declining the authority of the court. He represented, that having been engaged in treaty with his two houses of parliament, and having finished almost every article, he expected a different treatment

from that which he now received. He perceived, he said, no appearance of an upper house, which was necessary to constitute a just tribunal; observed, that he was himself the king and fountain of law, and consequently could not be tried by laws to which he had never given his assent; that having been intrusted with the liberties of the people, he would not now betray them, by recognizing a power founded on usurpation; that he was willing before a proper tribunal to enter into the particulars of his defence; but that before them he must decline any apology for his innocence, lest he should be considered as the betrayer of, and not a martyr for, the constitution.

Bradshaw, in order to support the authority of the court, insisted that they had received their power from the people, the source of all right. He pressed the prisoner not to decline the authority of a court that was delegated by the commons of England, and interrupted and overruled the king in his attempts to reply.

In this manner the king was three times produced before the court, and as often persisted in declining its jurisdiction. The fourth and last time he was brought before this self-created court, as he was proceeding thither, he was insulted by the soldiers and the mob, who exclaimed, "Justice! justice! Execution! execution!" but he continued undaunted. His judges having now examined some witnesses, by whom it was proved that the king had appeared in arms against the forces commissioned by parliament, they pronounced sentence against him. He seemed very anxious at this time to be admitted to a conference with the two houses; and it was supposed that he intended to resign the crown to his son; but the court

refused compliance, and considered his request as an artifice to delay justice.

The conduct of the king, under all these instances of low-bred malice, was great, firm, and equal; in going through the hall from this execrable tribunal, the soldiers and rabble were again instigated to cry out Justice and execution. They reviled him with the most bitter reproaches. Among other insults, one miscreant presumed to spit in the face of his sovereign. He patiently bore their insolence. "Poor souls," cried he, "they would treat their generals in the same manner for sixpence." Those of the populace who still retained the feelings of humanity, expressed their sorrow in sighs and tears. A soldier, more compassionate than the rest, could not help imploring a blessing upon his royal head. An officer, overhearing him, struck the honest sentinel to the ground before the king; who remarked that the punishment exceeded the offence.

At his return to Whitehall, he desired the permission of the house to see his children, and to be attended in his private devotions by Dr. Juxon, late Bishop of London. These requests were granted, and also three days to prepare for the execution of the sentence. All that remained of his family now in England were the Princess Elizabeth, and the Duke of Gloucester, a child of eight years of age. After many seasonable and sensible exhortations to his daughter, he took his little son in his arms, and embracing him, "My child," said he, "they will cut off thy father's head; yes, they will cut off my head, and make thee a king. But mark what I say, thou must not be a king as long as thy brothers Charles and James are alive. They will cut off their heads

when they can take them ; and thy head too they will cut off at last, and therefore I charge thee do not be made a king by them." The child, bursting into tears, replied, " I will be torn in pieces first."

Every night during the interval between his sentence and execution, the king slept soundly as usual, though the noise of the workmen, employed in framing the scaffold, continually resounded in his ears. The fatal morning being at last arrived, he rose early, and calling one of his attendants, he bade him employ more than usual care in dressing him, and preparing him for so great and joyful a solemnity. The street before Whitehall was the place destined for his execution ; for it was intended that this should increase the severity of his punishment. He was led through the Banqueting-house to the scaffold adjoining to that edifice, attended by his friend and servant Bishop Juxon, a man endowed with the mild and steady virtues of his master. The scaffold, which was covered with black, was guarded by a regiment of soldiers under the command of Colonel Tomlinson ; and on it were to be seen the block, the axe, and two executioners in masks. The people in crowds stood at a greater distance, in dreadful expectation of the event. The king surveyed all these preparations with calm composure ; and as he could not expect to be heard by the people at a distance, he addressed himself to the few persons who stood round him. He there justified his own innocence in the late fatal wars ; and observed, that he had not taken arms till after the parliament had shewn him the example ; that he had no other object in his warlike preparations than to preserve that authority entire which had been transmitted to him by his ancestors ; but, though innocent

towards his people, he acknowledged the equity of his execution in the eyes of his Maker. He owned that he was justly punished for having consented to the execution of an unjust sentence upon the Earl of Strafford. He forgave all his enemies, exhorted the people to return to their obedience, and acknowledged his son as his successor; and signified his attachment to the Protestant religion as professed in the Church of England. So strong was the impression his dying words made upon the few who could hear him, that Colonel Tomlinson himself, to whose care he had been committed, acknowledged himself a convert.

While he was preparing himself for the block, Bishop Juxon called out to him, "There is, sir, but one stage more, which, though turbulent and troublesome, is yet a very short one. It will soon carry you a great way; it will carry you from earth to heaven; and there you will find, to your great joy, the prize to which you hasten—a crown of glory." "I go," replied the king, "from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can have place." "You exchange," replied the bishop, "a temporal for an eternal crown—a good exchange." Charles having taken off his cloak, delivered his George to the prelate, pronouncing the word, "Remember." Then he laid his neck on the block; and, when he had stretched out his hands as a signal, one of the executioners severed his head from his body at a blow, while the other, holding it up, exclaimed, "This is the head of a traitor!" The spectators testified their horror at the sad spectacle in sighs, tears, and lamentations; the tide of their duty and affection began to return, and each blamed himself either for active disloyalty to his king, or a passive compliance with his

destroyers. The very pulpits that used to resound with insolence and sedition, were now bedewed with tears of unfeigned repentance; and all united in their detestation of those dark hypocrites, who, to satisfy their own enmity, involved a whole nation in the guilt of treason.

Charles was executed in the forty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

In the Commonwealth CROMWELL-mecupod was lord.

A REPUBLICAN form of government was established on the ruins of monarchy. Cromwell, through whose secret influence the king's destruction had been accomplished, began now to feel the stirrings of ambition, and to desire unlimited authority. The army was subservient to his purposes: and by a course of shrewd policy he was enabled daily to advance his schemes, and to relieve himself from the dictation of those whom he had used as tools in the prosecution of his early designs. Charles, son of the late monarch, was subjected to great indignities by the gloomy zealots who now held the reins of power. Having recalled the Scots to a sense of loyalty, the prince boldly marched into England at the head of his forces, expecting that vast numbers in this country would gather to his standard. In this expectation, however, he was greatly deceived: the English had too great a terror of Cromwell to join in the hazardous enterprise; and the latter coming suddenly on the Scotch army, defeated them with terrible slaughter.

Imagination can scarcely conceive adventures more romantic, or distresses more severe, than those which attended the young king's escape from the field of battle. After his hair was cut off, the better to disguise his person, he wrought for some days in the

habit of a peasant, cutting faggots in a wood. He next made an attempt to retire into Wales, under the conduct of one Pendrel, a poor farmer, who was sincerely attached to his cause. In this attempt, however, he was disappointed, every pass being guarded to prevent his escape. Being obliged to return, he met one Colonel Careless, who, like himself, had escaped the carnage at Worcester; and it was in his company that he was obliged to climb a spreading oak, among the thick branches of which they passed the day together, while they heard the soldiers of the enemy in pursuit of them below. Thence he passed with imminent danger, feeling all the varieties of famine, fatigue, and pain, till he arrived at the house of Colonel Lane, a zealous royalist, in Staffordshire. There he deliberated about the means of escaping into France; and Bristol being supposed the most convenient port, it was agreed that he should ride thither, before this gentleman's sister, on a visit to Mrs. Norton, who lived in the neighbourhood of that city. During this journey, he every day met with persons whose faces he knew; and at one time he passed through a whole regiment of the enemy's army.

When they arrived at Mrs. Norton's, the first person they saw was one of his own chaplains sitting at the door, amusing himself with seeing people play at bowls. The king, after having taken proper care of his horse in the stable, was shewn to an apartment, which Mrs. Lane had provided for him, as it was said he had the ague. The butler, however, being sent to him with some refreshment, no sooner beheld his face, which was very pale with anxiety and fatigue, than he recollected his king and master, and falling upon

his knees, while the tears streamed down his cheeks, cried out, "I am rejoiced to see your majesty." The king was alarmed, but made the butler promise that he would keep the secret from every mortal, even from his master; and the honest servant punctually obeyed him.

No ship being found that would for a month set sail from Bristol, either for France or Spain, the king was obliged to go elsewhere for a passage. He therefore repaired to the house of Colonel Wyndham, in Dorsetshire, where he was cordially received; that gentleman's family having ever been loyal. His mother, a venerable matron, seemed to think the end of her life nobly rewarded, in having it in her power to give protection to her king. She expressed no dissatisfaction at having lost three sons and one grandchild in the defence of his cause, since she was honoured in being instrumental to his own preservation.

Pursuing thence his journey to the sea-side, he once more had a very providential escape from a little inn, where he put up for the night. The day had been appointed by parliament for a solemn fast; and a fanatical weaver, who had been a soldier in the parliament army, was preaching against the king in a little chapel fronting the house. Charles, to avoid suspicion, was himself among the audience. It happened that a smith, of the same principles with the weaver, had been examining the horses belonging to the passengers and came to assure the preacher that he knew, by the fashion of the shoes, that one of the strangers' horses came from the north. The preacher immediately affirmed that this horse could belong to no other than Charles Stewart, and instantly went with a constable to search the inn. But Charles had

taken timely precautions and had left the inn before the constable's arrival.

At Shoreham, in Sussex, a vessel was at last found, in which he embarked. He was known to so many, that, if he had not set sail in that critical moment, it would have been impossible for him to escape. After six weeks' wandering and concealment, he arrived safely at Feschamp in Normandy. No less than forty men and women had, at different times been privy to his escape.

The parliament began now to see through the designs of Cromwell, and to wish his removal from the head of the army. They appointed a committee to prepare an act which should reduce the soldiery once more to their control.

This was what Cromwell had long wished, and had well foreseen. He was sitting in council with his officers when informed of the subject on which the house was deliberating; upon which he rose up in seeming fury, and turning to Major Vernon, cried out "That he was compelled to do a thing that made the very hair of his head stand on end." Then hastening to the house with three hundred soldiers, and with the marks of violent indignation on his countenance, he entered, took his place, and attended to the debates for some time. When the question was ready to be put, he suddenly started up, and began to load the parliament with the vilest reproaches for their tyranny, ambition, oppression, and robbery of the public, upon which, stamping with his foot, which was a signal for the soldiers to enter, the place was immediately filled with armed men. Then addressing himself to the members, "For shame," said he, "Get you gone. Give place to lionester men: to those who will more

faithfully discharge their trust. You are no longer a parliament; I tell you, you are no longer a parliament; the Lord has done with you." Sir Henry Vane exclaiming against this conduct, "Sir Harry," cried Cromwell with a loud voice, "O Sir Harry Vane! the lord deliver me from Sir Harry Vane!" Taking hold of Martin by the cloak, he said, "Thou art a whore-master;" to another, "Thou art an adulterer;" to a third, "Thou art a drunkard;" and to a fourth, "Thou art a glutton." "It is you," continued he to the members, "that have forced me upon this. I have sought the Lord night and day, that he would rather slay me than put me upon this work." Then pointing to the mace, "Take away," cried he, "that bauble." After which, turning out all the members, and clearing the hall, he ordered the doors to be locked, and putting the key in his pocket, returned to Whitehall. Thus by one daring exploit, the new republic was abolished, and the whole command, civil and military, centred in Cromwell only.

The cautious policy of Cromwell induced him to call another parliament, which should, however, be the mere creatures of his will. The persons elected by him were the lowest, meanest, and most ignorant among the citizens, and the very dregs of the fanatics. He was well apprized that during the administration of such a group of characters, he alone must govern, or that they must soon throw up the reins of government, which they were unqualified to guide. Accordingly, their practice justified his sagacity. To go farther than others into the absurdities of fanaticism was the chief qualification which each of these valued himself upon. Their very names, composed of cant phrases, borrowed from scripture, and rendered ridi-

culous by their misapplication, served to shew their excess of folly. Not only the names of Zorobabel, Habakkuk, and Mesopotamia, were given to those ignorant creatures, but sometimes whole sentences from scripture. One of them particularly, who was called Praise-God Barebone, a canting leather-seller, gave his name to this odd assembly; and it was called Barebone's parliament.

Their attempts at legislation were entirely correspondent to their stations and characters. As they were chiefly composed of Antinomians, a sect that, after receiving the Spirit, supposed themselves incapable of error, and of fifth-monarchy men, who every hour expected Christ's coming on earth, they began by choosing eight of their tribe to seek the Lord in prayer while the rest calmly sat down to deliberate upon the suppression of the clergy, the universities, the courts of justice; and, instead of all this, it was their intent to substitute the law of Moses.

To this hopeful assembly was committed the treaty of peace with the Dutch; but the ambassadors from that nation, though themselves presbyterians, were quite carnal-minded to these. They were regarded by the new parliament as worldly men, intent on commerce and industry, and therefore, not to be treated with. The saintly members insisted that the man of sin should be put away, and a new birth obtained by prayer and meditation. The ambassadors, finding themselves unable to converse with them in their way, gave up the treaty as hopeless.

The very vulgar began now to exclaim against so foolish a legislature; and they themselves seemed not insensible of the ridicule which every day was thrown out against them. Cromwell was probably well

enough pleased to find that his power was likely to receive no diminution from their endeavours; but he began to be ashamed of their complicated absurdities. He had carefully chosen many persons among them entirely devoted to his interests, and these he commanded to dismiss the assembly. Accordingly, by concert, they met earlier than the rest of their fraternity; and, observing to each other that this parliament had sitten long enough, they hastened to Cromwell, with Rouse their speaker, at their head, and into his hands they resigned the authority with which he had invested them.

Cromwell accepted their resignation with pleasure; but being told that some of the number were refractory, he sent Colonel White to clear the house of such as ventured to remain there. They had placed one Moyer in the chair by the time the colonel had arrived; and being asked what they did there, he replied very gravely, that "They were seeking the Lord." Then you may go elsewhere," cried White; "for, to my certain knowledge, the Lord has not been here these many years."

This shadow of a parliament being dissolved, the officers, by their own authority, declared Cromwell protector of the commonwealth of England. Nothing now could withstand his authority; the mayor and aldermen were sent for, to give solemnity to his appointment; and he was instituted into his new office at Whitehall, in the palace of the kings of England. He was to be addressed by the title of highness; and his power was proclaimed in London and other parts of the kingdom. Thus an obscure and vulgar man, at the age of fifty-four, rose to unbounded power, first by following small events in his favour, and at length by directing great ones.

It cannot be denied that Cromwell's conduct during his absolute sway over the realm, was laudable; he raised the naval and military glory of the country, and kept its enemies in perfect control. It was even requested of him that he would assume the kingly name and dignity.

But it must not be supposed that his situation, with all these offered honours, was at this time enviable. Perhaps no station, however mean, or loaded with contempt, could be more truly distressful than his, at a time when the nation was loading him with congratulation and addresses. He had now rendered himself hateful to every party; and he owed his safety to their mutual hatred and diffidence of each other. His arts of dissimulation had been long exhausted; and none could be deceived by them; those of his own party and principles disclaiming the use to which he had converted his zeal and professions. The truth seems to be, if we may use a phrase taken from common life, he began with being a dupe to his own enthusiasm, and ended with being a sharper.

The whole nation silently detested his administration; but he had not still been reduced to the extreme of wretchedness, if he could have found domestic consolation. Fleetwood, his son-in-law, actuated with the wildest zeal, detested that character which could use religious professions for the purposes of temporal advancement. His eldest daughter, married to Fleetwood, had adopted republican principles so vehemently, that she could not behold even her own father entrusted with uncontrollable power. His other daughters were strongly attached to the royal cause; but above all Mrs. Claypole, his favourite daughter, who, upon her death-bed, upbraided him with that

criminal ambition which had led him to trample on the throne.

Every hour added some new disquietude. Lord Fairfax, Sir William Waller, and many of the heads of the presbyterians, had secretly entered into an engagement to destroy him. His administration, so expensive both at home and abroad, had exhausted his revenue, and he was left considerably in debt. One conspiracy was no sooner detected, than another rose from its ruins; and, to increase his calamity, he was now taught, upon reasoning principles, that his death was not only desirable, but his assassination would be meritorious. A book was published by Colonel Titus, a man who had formerly been attached to his cause, entitled *Killing no Murder*. Of all the pamphlets that came forth at that time, or perhaps of those that have since appeared, this was the most eloquent and masterly. "Shall we," said this popular declaimer, "who would not suffer the lion to invade us, tamely stand to be devoured by the wolf?" Cromwell read this spirited treatise, and was never seen to smile more.

All peace was now for ever banished from his mind. He found that the grandeur to which he had sacrificed his former peace was only an inlet to fresh inquietudes. The fears of assassination haunted him in all his walks, and were perpetually present to his imagination. He wore armour under his clothes, and always kept pistols in his pockets. His aspect was clouded by settled gloom; and he regarded every stranger with a glance of timid suspicion. He always travelled with hurry, and was ever attended by a numerous guard. He never returned from any place by the road he went, and seldom slept above three nights together in the

same chamber. Society terrified him, as there he might meet an enemy; solitude was terrible, as he was there unguarded by every friend.

A tertian ague kindly came at last to deliver him from this life of horror and anxiety. For the space of a week no dangerous symptoms appeared; and in the intervals of the fits he was able to walk abroad. At length the fever increased, and he himself began to dread his approaching fate; but he was taught to consider his present disorder as no way fatal, by his fanatic chaplains, on whom he entirely relied. When his chaplain, Goodwin, told him that the elect would never be damned, "Then I am sure," said he, "that I am safe; for I was once in a state of grace." His physicians were sensible of his dangerous case; but he was so much encouraged by the revelations of his preachers, that he considered his recovery as no way doubtful. "I tell you," cried he to the physicians, "that I shall not die of this distemper; I am well assured of my recovery. Favourable answers have been returned from Heaven, not only to my own supplications, but likewise to those of the godly, who have a closer correspondence with God than I. Ye may have skill in your profession; but nature can do more than all the physicians in the world; and God is far above nature." Upon a fast-day appointed on account of his sickness, his ministers thanked God for the undoubted pledges they had received of his recovery. Notwithstanding these assurances, the fatal symptoms every hour increased; and the physicians were obliged to declare that he could not survive the next fit. The council now therefore came to know his last commands concerning the succession; but his senses were gone, and he was just able to answer

yes to their demand, whether his son Richard should be appointed to succeed him. He died on the third day of September, that very day which he had always considered as the most fortunate of his life: he was then fifty-nine years old, and had usurped the government nine years.

On the death of the Protector, his son Richard was nominated to succeed him; but he wanted the stimulus of ambition to retain the authority bestowed on him, and shortly retired from unenviable greatness, to the quiet of private life.

There seemed now to be a general inclination for the restoration of monarchy. It is in vain for historians of any party to ascribe the restoration of Charles the Second to the merits of any particular persons. The Presbyterians were very zealous in promoting it, but it was effected by the general concurrence of the people, who had become convinced that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by restoring the ancient constitution of monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but of no principles, excepting such as served his ambition or interest, had the sagacity to observe this; and, after temporizing in various shapes, being at the head of the army, he made the principal figure in restoring Charles the Second

THE RESTORATION.

CHARLES II. SON OF CHARLES I.

Charles the second-mecubid to the throne was restor'd.

CHARLES the Second having been seated on the throne of his ancestors by the unanimous consent of the people, who had long been disgusted with the fanatical usurpation of Cromwell and the other regicides, the nation indulged in manifestations of unbounded joy. The restored monarch, though he had passed an act of indemnity for past offences, still deemed it necessary to make an example of the principal parties concerned in the deposition and destruction of his father. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw, were disinterred and dragged to the place of public execution; after having been suspended for some time, their remains were ignominiously buried beneath the gallows. This, however, was the most harmless vengeance taken on the regicides; the late king's judges, together with a number of other parties deeply implicated, were executed with a degree of barbarity that savoured less of justice than of revenge. The army that had so long dictated to the nation was disbanded; and prelacy, with all the ceremonies of the Church of England was restored.

The tolerant spirit of Charles's government, did

not, however, remove the fears or quell the enthusiasm of a few determined men, who, actuated by religious zeal, entered into a conspiracy to overturn the re-established throne. Relying on supernatural aid, these fanatics took no prudential measures, and acted on no systematic plan; the consequence naturally was that their efforts were fruitless; and their execution as traitors relieved the king from further disquiet on their account. While the severities of justice were falling heavily on those who dared to attempt a subversion of the new order of things, the court set an example of debauchery and licentiousness to the people, who readily adopted practices, however immoral, so long as they differed from the puritanical manners of their former rulers. The king himself spent his days in feasting, and all the excesses of vicious refinement; and the supporters of his fortunes, the old and faithful friends of his family, were totally disregarded, and left to pine in want and obscurity.

Nevertheless, his parliaments, both of England and Scotland, seemed willing to make reparation for their former disobedience, by their present concessions. In the English house, monarchy and episcopacy were carried to as great splendour as they had suffered misery and depression. The bishops were permitted to resume their seats in the house of peers; all military authority was acknowledged to be vested in the king; and he was empowered to appoint commissioners for regulating corporations, and expelling such members as had intruded themselves by violence, or professed principles dangerous to the constitution. An act of uniformity in religion was passed, by which it was required that every clergyman should be re-ordained, if he had not before received episcopal

ordination; that he should declare his assent to every thing contained in the Book of Common Prayer, and should take the oath of canonical obedience. In consequence of this law, above two thousand of the presbyterian clergy relinquished their cures in one day, to the great astonishment of the nation; thus sacrificing their interest to their religion.

But the Scotch parliament went still greater lengths in their prostrations to the king. It was there that his divine, indefeisible, and hereditary right, was asserted in the fullest and most positive terms. His right was extended to their lives and possessions; and from his original grant was said to come all that his subjects might be said to enjoy. They voted him an additional revenue of forty thousand pounds; and all their former violences were treated with the utmost detestation.

This was the time for the king to have made himself independent of all parliaments; and it is said that Southampton, one of his ministers, had thought of procuring for him from the commons, the grant of a revenue of two millions a year, which would effectually have rendered him absolute; but in this he was obstructed by the great Clarendon, who, though the friend of his king, was yet more the friend of justice and the laws.

The king's extravagance in the indulgence of criminal pleasures, frequently involved him in much difficulty. To extricate himself in some measure from a state of penury, he married the Infanta of Spain, with whom he expected to receive a portion of three hundred thousand pounds in money. He afterwards, with a view to recruit his finances, entered into a war with the Dutch; trusting that the supplies for carrying

it on would pass through his hands. France and Denmark rose in support of the Dutch, and against their combined efforts, Charles was determined to prosecute the war.

De Ruyter, the great Dutch Admiral, was appointed at the head of seventy-six sail, to join the Duke of Beaufort, the French Admiral, who, it was supposed, was then advancing toward the British Channel from Toulon. The Duke of Albemarle and Prince Rupert now commanded the English fleet, which did not exceed seventy-four sail. Albemarle, who, from his successes under Cromwell, had learned too much to despise the enemy, proposed to despatch Prince Rupert with twenty ships to oppose the Duke of Beaufort. Sir George Ayscough, well acquainted with the force of his enemies, protested against the temerity of this resolution; but Albemarle's authority prevailed. The English and Dutch thus engaging upon unequal terms, a battle ensued, the most memorable in the annals of the ocean. The battle began with incredible fury: the Dutch Admiral Evertzen, was killed by a cannon-ball, and one vessel of their fleet was blown up, while one of the English ships was taken; darkness parted the combatants for the first day. The second day they renewed the combat with increased animosity: sixteen fresh ships joined the Dutch, and the English were so shattered, that their fighting ships were reduced to twenty-eight. Upon retreating towards their own coast, the Dutch followed them, where another dreadful conflict was beginning, but parted by the darkness of the night, as before. The morning of the third day, the English were obliged to continue their retreat, and the Dutch persisted in pursuing. Albemarle, who still kept

in the rear, and presented a dreadful front to the enemy, made a desperate resolution to blow up his ship rather than submit to the enemy; when he happily found himself reinforced by Prince Rupert with sixteen ships of the line. By this time it was night; and the next morning, after a distant cannonading, the fleets came to a close combat, which was continued with great violence till they were parted by a mist. Sir George Ayscough, in a ship of one hundred guns, had the misfortune to strike on the Galoper sands, where he was surrounded and taken. The English retired first into their harbours; both sides claimed the victory, but the Dutch certainly obtained the advantage, though not the glory, of the combat.

A second engagement, equally bloody, followed soon after, with larger fleets on both sides, commanded by the same admirals; and in this the Dutch were obliged to own themselves vanquished, and retreat into their own harbours. But they were soon in a capacity to out-number the English fleet, by the junction of Beaufort the French admiral. The Dutch fleet appeared in the Thames, conducted by their great admiral, and threw the English into the utmost consternation: a chain had been drawn across the river Medway; some fortifications had been added to the forts along the banks; but all these were unequal to the present force. Sheerness was soon taken, the Dutch passed forward, and broke the chain, though fortified by some ships sunk there by Albemarle's orders. Destroying the shipping in their passage, they advanced with six men-of-war and five fire-ships, as far as Upnore castle, where they burned three men-of-war. The whole city of London was in consternation; it was expected that the Dutch might sail

up next tide to London-bridge, and destroy, not only the shipping, but even the buildings of the metropolis. But the Dutch were unable to prosecute that project, from the failure of the French, who had promised to give them assistance: spreading, therefore, an alarm along the coast, they returned to their own ports, to boast of their success against their formidable enemies, and of the insult they had offered even to the very harbours of their rivals in naval glory.

Nothing could exceed the indignation felt by the people at this disgrace. But they had lately sustained some accidental calamities which in some measure moderated their rage and their pride. A plague had ravaged the city, which swept away ninety thousand of its inhabitants. This calamity was followed, in the year 1666, by another still more dreadful, as more unexpected: a fire breaking out at a baker's house, who lived in Pudding-lane, near the bridge, it spread with such rapidity, that no efforts could extinguish it till it laid in ashes the most considerable part of the city. The conflagration continued three days; while the wretched inhabitants fled from one street only to be spectators of equal calamities in another. At length when all hope vanished, and a total destruction was expected, the flames ceased unexpectedly, after having reduced thousands from affluence to misery. As the streets were narrow, and the houses were mostly built with wood, the flames spread the faster; and the unusual dryness of the season prevented the proper supplies of water. But the people were not satisfied with these obvious causes: having been long taught to impute their calamities to the machinations of their enemies, they now ascribed the present misfortune to the same cause, and imputed the burning of the city to a plot laid by

the papists. But, happily for that sect, no proofs were brought of their guilt, though all men were willing to credit them. The magistracy, therefore, contented themselves with ascribing it to them; on a monument raised where the fire began, and which still continues as a proof of the blind credulity of the times. This calamity, though at first it affected the fortunes of thousands, in the end proved both beneficial and ornamental to the city. It rose from its ruins in greater beauty than ever; and the streets, being widened, and the houses built of brick instead of wood, it became more wholesome and more secure.

These complicated misfortunes did not fail to excite many murmurs among the people; fearful of laying the blame on the king, whose authority was formidable, they very liberally ascribed all their calamities to papists, jesuits, and fanatics. The war with the Dutch was exclaimed against, as unsuccessful and unnecessary; as being an attempt to humble that nation, who were equal enemies of popery themselves. Charles himself also began to be sensible that all the ends for which he had undertaken the Dutch war were likely to prove ineffectual. Whatever projects he might have formed for secreting the money granted him by parliament for his own use, he had hitherto failed in his intention; and, instead of laying up, he found himself considerably in debt. Proposals were, therefore, thrown out for an accommodation, which, after some negociation, the Dutch consented to accept. A treaty was concluded at Breda, by which the colony of New York was ceded by the Dutch to the English, to whom it was a most valuable acquisition. Clarendon, and the ministry acting with him, were

now removed from their situations, and their places were supplied by a junto of noblemen called the Cabal, a word compounded of the initial letters of their names. A secret alliance with France, and a rupture with Holland, were the first consequences of their advice. The Duke of York had the confidence boldly to declare himself a Catholic; and to alarm the fears of the nation still more, a liberty of conscience was allowed to all sectaries, whether Protestant dissenters, or Papists. These measures were considered by the people as destructive, not only of their liberties, but of their religion, which they valued more. A proclamation was issued, containing very rigorous clauses in favour of pressing; another full of menaces against those who ventured to speak undutifully of his majesty's measures; and even against those who heard such discourses, unless they informed in due time against the offenders. These measures, though still within bounds, were yet no way suitable to that legal administration, which, upon his restoration, he had promised to establish.

The English now saw themselves engaged in a league with France against the Dutch; and consequently, whether victorious or vanquished, their efforts were likely to be equally unsuccessful. The French had for some years been growing into power; and now, under the conduct of their ambitious monarch, Louis XIV., they began to threaten the liberties of Europe, and particularly the Protestant religion, of which that prince had shown himself a determined enemy. It gave the people, therefore, a gloomy prospect, to see a union formed, which, if successful, must totally subvert that balance of power which the Protestants aimed at preserving; nor were they less apprehensive

of their own sovereign, who, though he pretended to turn all religion to ridicule in his gayer hours, yet was secretly attached to the Catholics, or was very much suspected of being so. The first events of this war were very correspondent to their fears of French treachery. The English and French combined fleets, commanded by the Duke of York, and the Mareschal D'Etrées, met the Dutch fleet, to the number of ninety sail, commanded by Admiral De Ruyter; and a furious battle ensued. In this engagement the gallant Sandwich, who commanded the English van, drove his ship into the midst of the enemy, beat off the admiral that ventured to attack him, sunk one ship that attempted to board him, and also three fire-ships. Though his vessel was torn with shot, and out of a thousand men there only remained four hundred, he still continued to thunder with his artillery in the midst of the engagement. At last, a fire-ship, more fortunate than the former, having laid hold of his vessel, her destruction was inevitable. Sandwich, however, refused to quit his ship, though warned by Sir Edward Haddock, his captain; he perished in the flames, while the engagement continued to rage all around him. Night parted the combatants; the Dutch retired, and were not followed by the English. The loss sustained by the two maritime powers was nearly equal; but the French suffered very little, not having entered into the heat of the engagement. It was even supposed that they had orders for this conduct, and to spare their own ships, while the Dutch and English should grow weak by their mutual animosities.

The commons now came to the resolution of granting no more supplies for continuing the war with

Holland, and a separate treaty with that country was the consequence. The French continued to act offensively against Holland; and the English, from being the opponents of the Dutch, became in turn their supporters. They beheld with admiration the skill and intrepidity of William Prince of Orange; and the commons induced Charles to declare war against France for the purpose of making a diversion in favour of the Dutch.

The compact between the latter and the English was firmly cemented by the marriage of Mary, daughter of the Duke of York (afterwards James II.) with the Prince of Orange. The famous treaty of Nimeguen shortly after gave a general peace to Europe.

The remainder of this reign is made up of plots and conspiracies, real or pretended; in the suppression of which much blood was spilled, and many valuable lives sacrificed. Amongst those who suffered for their temerity in attempting to erect a new form of things, were Lord Russel, and the celebrated Algernon Sidney.

The candour of Lord Russel would not allow him to deny the design in which he really was concerned; but his confession was not sufficient to convict him. To the fact which principally aimed at his life there was but one witness, and the law required two: this was overruled; for justice, during this whole reign, was too weak for the prevailing party. The jury, who were zealous royalists, after a short deliberation, pronounced the prisoner guilty. After his condemnation, the king was strongly solicited in his favour. Even money, to the amount of two hundred thousand pounds, was offered to the Duchess of Portsmouth, by the Earl of Bedford. But Charles was inexorable.

He dreaded the principles and popularity of Lord Russel, and resented his former activity in promoting the Bill of Exclusion. Lord Cavendish, the intimate friend of Russel, offered to effect his escape, by exchanging apparel with him, and remaining a prisoner in his room. The Duke of Monmouth sent a message to him, offering to surrender himself, if he thought that step would contribute to his safety. Lord Russel generously rejected both these expedients, and resigned himself to his fate with admirable fortitude. His consort, the daughter and heiress of the Earl of Southampton, finding that all supplications were vain, took leave of her husband without shedding a tear; while, as he parted from her, he turned to those about him—"Now," said he, "the bitterness of death is over." Before the sheriffs conducted him to the scaffold, he wound up his watch—"I have now done with time," said he, "and must henceforth think of eternity." The scaffold for his execution was erected in Lincoln's-Inn-Fields; he laid his head on the block without the least change of countenance, and at two strokes it was severed from his body.

The celebrated Algernon Sidney, son to the Earl of Leicester, was next brought to his trial. He had been formerly engaged in the parliamentary army against the late king, and was even named on the high court of justice that tried him, but had not taken his seat among the judges. He had ever opposed Cromwell's usurpation, and went into voluntary banishment upon the Restoration. His affairs, however, requiring his return, he applied to the king for a pardon, and obtained his request. But all his hopes and all his reasonings were formed upon republican principles. For his adored republic he had written

and fought, and went into banishment, and ventured to return. It may easily be conceived how obnoxious a man of such principles was to a court that now was not even content with limitations to its power. The ministry went so far as to take illegal methods to procure his condemnation. The only witness that deposed against Sidney was Lord Howard, and the law required two. In order, therefore, to make out a second witness, a very extraordinary expedient was adopted. In ransacking his closet, some discourses on government were found in his own hand-writing, containing principles favourable to liberty, and in themselves no way subversive of a limited government. By overstraining some of these, they were construed into treason. It was in vain he alleged that papers were no evidence; that it could not be proved they were written by him; that, if proved, the papers themselves contained nothing criminal. His defence was overruled; the violent and inhuman Jeffries, who was now chief-justice, easily prevailed on a partial jury to declare him guilty; and his execution soon followed.

One can scarcely contemplate the transactions of this reign without horror: such a picture of factious guilt on each side, a court at once immersed in sensuality and blood, a people armed against each other with the most deadly animosity, and no single party to be found with sense enough to stem the general torrent of rancour and factious suspicion.

At this period, the government of Charles was as absolute as that of any monarch in Europe; but, to please his subjects by an act of popularity, he judged it proper to marry the Lady Anne, his niece, to Prince George, brother to the King of Denmark. This was one of the last transactions of this extraordinary reign.

The king was seized with a sudden fit, which resembled an apoplexy; and though he was recovered from it by bleeding, yet he languished only for a few days, and then expired, in the fifty-fifth year of his age, and the twenty-fifth of his reign. During his illness some clergymen of the church of England attended him, to whom he discovered a total indifference. Catholic priests were brought to his bed-side, and from their hands he received the rites of their communion. Two papers were found in his closet, containing arguments in favour of that persuasion. These were soon after published by James his successor, by which he greatly injured his own popularity and his brother's memory.

JAMES II. SON OF CHARLES I.

*The second James-mocdis the sceptre laid down,
And William of Orange ascended the throne.*

THE Duke of York, brother to the late king, succeeded to the throne by the title of James II. This monarch directed all his endeavours to the re-establishment of popery; and to this bias he was indebted for the loss of his crown within three years after his accession.

One of the principle events in this reign was the conspiracy headed by the Duke of Monmouth, for the purpose of removing James from the throne and securing the regal seat for himself.

The parliament was no sooner informed of Monmouth's landing, than they presented an address to the king, assuring him of their loyalty, zeal, and assistance. The Duke of Albemarle, raising a body of four thousand militia, advanced, in order to block

him up in Lyme; but finding his soldiers disaffected to the king, he soon after retreated with precipitation.

In the mean time, the Duke advanced to Taunton, where he was reinforced by considerable numbers. Twenty young maids of some rank presented Monmouth with a pair of colours, their handiwork, together with a copy of the Bible. There he assumed the title of king, and was proclaimed with great solemnity. His numbers had now increased to six thousand men; and he was obliged every day, for want of arms, to dismiss numbers who crowded to his standard. He entered Bridgewater, Wells, and Frome, and was proclaimed in all those places; but he lost the hour of action, in receiving and claiming these empty honours.

The king was not a little alarmed at this invasion, but still more at the success of an undertaking that at first sight appeared so desperate. Six regiments of British troops were called over from Holland, and a body of regulars, to the number of three thousand men, were sent, under the command of the Earl of Feversham, and Churchill, to check the progress of the rebels. They took post at Sedge-moor, near Bridgewater, and were joined by the militia of the country in considerable numbers. It was there that Monmouth resolved, by a desperate effort, to lose his life or gain the kingdom. The negligent disposition made by Feversham invited him to the attack; and his faithful followers shewed what courage and principle could do against discipline and superior numbers. They drove the royal infantry from their ground, and were upon the point of gaining the victory, when the misconduct of Monmouth, and the cowardice of Lord Grey, who commanded the horse, brought all to ruin. This nobleman fled at the first onset; and the rebels,

being charged in flank by the victorious army, gave way, after three hours' contest. About three hundred were killed in the engagement, and a thousand in the pursuit; and thus ended an enterprise, rashly begun, and feebly conducted.

Monmouth fled from the field of battle above twenty miles, till his horse sunk under him; he then exchanged clothes with a shepherd, and fled on foot, attended by a German Count, who had accompanied him from Holland. Being exhausted with hunger and fatigue, they both lay down in a field, and covered themselves with fern. The discovery of the shepherd in Monmouth's clothes, increased the diligence of the search; and, by the means of blood-hounds, he was detected in his miserable situation with raw pease in his pocket, which he had gathered in the fields to sustain life. He burst into tears when seized by his enemies, and petitioned, with abject submission, for life. He wrote the most submissive letters to the king; and that monarch, willing to feast his eyes with the miseries of a fallen enemy, gave him an audience. At this interview the duke fell upon his knees, and begged his life in the most humiliating terms. He even signed a paper, offered him by the king, declaring his own illegitimacy; and then the stern tyrant assured him, that his crime was of such a nature as could not be pardoned. The duke, perceiving that he had nothing to hope from the clemency of his uncle, re-collected his spirits, rose up, and retired with an air of disdain. He was followed to the scaffold with great compassion from the populace. He warned the executioner not to fall into the same error which he had committed in beheading Russel, where it had been necessary to redouble the blow. But this only

increased the severity of his punishment. The man was seized with an universal trepidation, and he struck a feeble blow; upon which the duke raised his head from the block, as if to reproach him; he gently laid down his head a second time, and the executioner struck him again and again to no purpose. He at last threw the axe down; but the sheriff compelled him to resume the attempt, and at two more blows, the head was severed from the body. Such was the end of James, Duke of Monmouth, the darling of the English people. He was brave, sincere, and good-natured, open to flattery, and consequently seduced into an enterprise which exceeded his capacity.

But it would have been well for the insurgents, and fortunate for the king, if the blood that was now shed had been thought a sufficient expiation for the late offence. The victorious army behaved with the most savage cruelty to the prisoners taken after the battle. The Earl of Feversham, immediately after the victory, hanged up above twenty prisoners; and he was proceeding in his executions, when the Bishop of Bath and Wells warned him that these unhappy men were now by law entitled to trial, and that their execution would be deemed a real murder. Nineteen were put to death in the same manner at Bridgewater, by Colonel Kirke, a man of a savage and bloody disposition. This vile fellow, practised in the arts of slaughter at Tangier, where he had served in garrison, took a pleasure in committing instances of wanton barbarity. He ordered a certain number to be put to death, while he and his company were drinking the king's health. Observing their feet to shake in the agonies of death, he cried that they should have music to their dancing, and ordered the trumpets to sound.

He ravaged the whole country, without making any distinction between friend or foe. His own regiment, for their peculiar barbarity, went by the name of Kirke's Lambs. A story is told of his offering a young woman the life of her brother, in case of her consenting to his desires, which when she had done, he pointed to her brother hanging out of the window. But this is told of several others who have been notorious for cruelty, and may be the tale of malignity.

But the military severities of the commanders were still inferior to the legal slaughters committed by Judge Jefferies, who was sent down to try the delinquents. The natural brutality of this man's temper, was inflamed by continual intoxication. He told the prisoners that, if they would save him the trouble of trying them, they might expect some favour, otherwise, he would execute the law upon them with the utmost severity. Many poor wretches were thus allured into a confession, and found that it only hastened their destruction. No less than eighty were executed at Dorchester; and, on the whole, in the western counties, two hundred and fifty-one are computed to have fallen by the hand of justice. Women were not exempted from the general severity, but suffered for harbouring their nearest kindred. Lady Lisle, though the widow of a regicide, was herself a loyalist. She was apprehended for having sheltered in her house two fugitives from the battle of Sedge-moor. She proved that she was ignorant of their crime when she had given them protection, and the jury seemed inclined to compassion: they twice brought in a favourable verdict: but they were as often sent back by Jefferies, with menaces and reproaches, and at

last were constrained to give a verdict against the prisoner.

But the fate of Mrs. Gaunt was still more terrible. Mrs. Gaunt was an anabaptist, noted for her beneficence, which she had extended to persons of all professions and persuasions. One of the rebels, knowing her humane character, had recourse to her in his distress, and was concealed by her. The abandoned villain, hearing that a reward and indemnity were offered to such as informed against criminals, came in, and betrayed his protectress. His evidence was incontestable; the proofs were strong against her; he was pardoned for his treachery, and she burned alive for her benevolence.

The cruelties of James, added to his bigoted attachment to the Catholic religion, excited general disgust amongst his subjects. The Protestant clergy, a numerous and powerful body, were determinately opposed to his government; on the army he too quickly found he could place no reliance; and his misfortunes were completed by a vote passing both houses of parliament declaring his sway illegal, and by a subsequent invitation to the Prince of Orange to accept the English crown.

On the arrival of the Prince of Orange, James went over to Ireland, where he was hailed by the papal party with enthusiasm. A powerful army was speedily collected to dispute the pretensions of his successor; and an obstinate struggle ensued between the two parties. At length the day arrived which was for ever to destroy the hopes of James. In the battle of the Boyne, his army was totally defeated by William of Orange, and he himself retreated from the field and embarked for France.

James was now reduced to the lowest ebb of despondence; his designs upon England were quite frustrated, so that nothing was left to his friends, but the hope of assassinating the monarch on the throne. These base attempts, as barbarous as they were useless, were not entirely disagreeable to the temper of James. It is said he encouraged and proposed them; but they all proved unserviceable to his cause, and only ended in the destruction of the undertakers. From that time till he died, which was above nine years, he continued to reside at St. Germain's, a pensioner on the bounties of Louis, and assisted by occasional liberalities from his daughter and friends in England. He died on the fifth day of September, in the year 1701, after having laboured under a tedious sickness; and many miracles, as the people thought, were wrought at his tomb. Indeed, the latter part of his life was calculated to inspire the superstitious with reverence for his piety. He subjected himself to acts of uncommon penance and mortification. He frequently visited the poor monks of La Trappe, who were edified by his humble and pious deportment. His pride and arbitrary temper seemed to have vanished with his greatness; he became affable, kind, and easy to his dependants; and, in his last illness, conjured his son to prefer religion to every worldly advantage—a counsel which that prince strictly obeyed. He died with great marks of devotion, and was interred, at his own request, in the church of the English Benedictines at Paris, without any funeral solemnity.

THE REVOLUTION.

WILLIAM III. PRINCE OF ORANGE, AND MARY,
DAUGHTER OF JAMES II.

William and Mary-mecipod ascended.

WILLIAM the Third was a Calvinist, and in the beginning of his reign, he endeavoured to repeal the laws which enjoined uniformity of worship; in this he partially succeeded, and was enabled to grant toleration to the dissenters, under certain restrictions.

It was in the midst of laws, beneficial to the subject, that the Jacobites still conceived hopes of restoring their fallen monarch, and dethroning William. While one sort proceeded against him in the bolder manner, by attempting to excite an insurrection, another, consisting of the most desperate conspirators, formed a scheme of assassination. Sir George Barclay, a native of Scotland, who had served as an officer in James's army, a man of undaunted courage, which was still more inflamed by his bigotry to the religion of the church of Rome, undertook the bold task of seizing or assassinating the king. This design he imparted to Harrison, Charnock, Porter, and Sir William Perkins, by whom it was approved; and, after various consultations, it was resolved to attack the king, on his return from Richmond, where he commonly hunted on Saturdays: and the scene of

their ambuscade was a lane between Brentford and Turnham-Green. To secure success, it was agreed that their number should be increased to forty horsemen; and each conspirator began to engage proper persons to assist in this dangerous enterprise. When their number was complete, they waited with impatience for the hour of action; but some of the under actors, seized with fear or remorse, resolved to prevent the execution by a timely discovery. One Prendergast, an Irish officer, gave information of the plot, but refused to mention the persons who were concerned as associates in the undertaking. His information was at first disregarded; but it was soon confirmed by La Rue, a Frenchman, and still more by the flight of Sir George Barclay, who began to perceive that the whole was discovered. The night subsequent to the intended day of assassination, a considerable number of the conspirators were apprehended, and the whole discovery was communicated to the privy-council. Prendergast became an evidence for the crown, and the conspirators were brought to their trial. The first who suffered were, Robert Charnock, (one of the two fellows of Magdalen college, who, in the reign of James, had renounced the Protestant religion,) Lieutenant King, and Thomas Keys. They were found guilty of high-treason, and suffered at Tyburn. Sir John Friend, and Sir William Perkins, were next arraigned; and although they made a very good and, as it would seem, a very sufficient defence, yet Lord Chief Justice Holt, who was too well known to act rather as counsel against the prisoners than as a solicitor in their favour, influenced the jury to find them guilty. They both suffered at Tyburn, with great constancy, denying the charge,

and testifying their abhorrence of the assassination. In the course of the month, Rockwood, Cranbourne, and Lowic, were tried by a special commission as conspirators; and being found guilty, shared the fate of the former. But the case of Sir John Fenwick was considered as one of the greatest stretches of power during this reign. This gentleman, whose name had been mentioned among the rest of the conspirators, was apprehended in his way to France. There was little evidence against him, except an intercepted letter which he wrote to his wife. It is true he offered to discover all he knew of a conspiracy against the king; but when he came to enter into the detail, he so managed his information, that it could affect no individual concerned. King William, therefore, sent over word from Holland, where he then was, that unless the prisoner could make more important discoveries, he should be brought to his trial. The only material evidences against him, were one Porter, and Goodman: but of these, Lady Fenwick had the good fortune to secrete one, so that only Porter, a single witness, remained; and his unsupported evidence, by the late law, was insufficient to affect the life of the prisoner. However, the house of commons were resolved to inflict that punishment upon him which the laws were unable to execute. As he had, in his discoveries, made very free with the names of many persons in that house, Admiral Russel insisted that he might have an opportunity of vindicating his own character in particular. Sir John Fenwick was ordered to the bar of the house, and there exhorted by the Speaker to make an ample discovery. He refused, and a bill of attainder was preferred against him which was passed by a large majority. He was

furnished with a copy of the indictment, and allowed counsel at the bar of the house; and the law officers of the crown were called upon to open the evidence. After much disputation, in which passion and revenge were rather attended to than reason, the bill was committed, and sent up to the house of Lords, where Sir John Fenwick was found guilty, by a majority only of seven voices. The prisoner solicited the mediation of the lords in his behalf, while his friends implored the royal mercy. The lords gave him to understand, that the success of his suit would depend on the fulness of his discoveries. He would have previously stipulated for pardon, and they insisted on his trusting to their favour. He hesitated some time between the fears of infamy and the terrors of death. At last he chose death as the least terrible; and he suffered beheading on Tower-hill with great composure. His death proved the insufficiency of any laws to protect the subject, when a majority of the powerful shall think proper to dispense with them!

This stretch of power in the parliament was in some measure compensated by their diligence in restraining the universal corruption that seemed at that time to prevail over the kingdom. They were assiduously employed in bringing those to justice who had grown wealthy by public plunder, and in increasing the number of those laws which restrained the arts of speculation. The number of these, while they seemed calculated for the benefit of the nation, were in reality symptoms of the general depravity; for the more numerous the laws, the more corrupt the state.

The king, however, on his part, became at length fatigued with opposing the laws which parliament every day were laying round his authority, and gave

up the contest. He admitted every restraint upon the prerogative in England, on condition of being properly supplied with the means of humbling the power of France. War, and the balance of power in Europe, were all he knew, or indeed desired to understand. Provided the parliament furnished him with supplies for these purposes, he permitted them to rule the internal policy at their pleasure. For the prosecution of the war with France, the sums of money granted him were incredible. The nation, not contented with furnishing him such sums of money as they were capable of raising by the taxes of the year, mortgaged those taxes, and involved themselves in debts which they have never since been able to discharge. For all that profusion of wealth granted to maintain the imaginary balance of Europe, England received in return the empty reward of military glory in Flanders, and the consciousness of having given their allies, particularly the Dutch, frequent opportunities of being ungrateful.

The war with France continued during the greatest part of this king's reign; but at length the treaty of Ryswick put an end to those contentions in which England had engaged without policy, and came off without advantage. At the general pacification, her interests seemed entirely deserted; and for all the treasures she had sent to the continent, and all the blood which she had shed there, the only equivalent she received was an acknowledgment of King William's title from the King of France.

The king, now freed from a foreign war, laid himself out to strengthen his authority at home; but he shewed that he was ill acquainted with the disposition of the people he was to govern. As he could

not bear the thoughts of being a king without military command, he conceived hopes of keeping up, during peace, the forces that were granted him in time of danger; but what was his mortification to find the commons pass a vote, that all the forces in English pay, exceeding seven thousand men, should be forthwith disbanded, and that those retained should be natural-born subjects of England! A monarch bred up in camps as he was, and who knew scarcely any other pleasure than that of reviewing troops and dictating to generals, could not think of laying down at once all his power and all his amusements. He professed himself, therefore highly displeased with the vote of the commons; and his indignation was kindled to such a pitch, that he actually conceived a design of abandoning the government. His ministers, however, diverted him from his resolution, and persuaded him to consent to the enactment of the bill.

These altercations between the king and parliament continued during the remainder of this reign. William considered the commons as a body of men desirous of power for themselves, and consequently bent upon obstructing all his projects to secure the liberties of Europe. He seemed but little attached to any particular party in the house, all of whom, he found, at times deserted or opposed him. He therefore veered to Whigs and Tories indiscriminately, as interest or immediate exigence demanded. He was taught to consider England as a place of labour, anxiety, and altercation. If he had any time for amusement or relaxation, he retired to Loo in Holland, where, among a few friends, he gave a loose to those coarse festivities, which alone he was capable of relishing. It was there he planned the different

successions of the princes of Europe, and laboured to undermine the schemes and the power of Louis, his rival in politics and in fame.

However feeble his desire of other amusements might have been, he could scarcely live without being at variance with France. Peace had not long subsisted with that nation, when he began to think of resources for carrying on a new war, and for enlisting his English subjects in the confederacy. Several arts were used for inducing the people to second his aims; and the whole nation at last seemed to join in desiring a war with that kingdom. He had been in Holland concerting with his allies, operations for a new campaign. He had engaged in a negociation with the Prince of Hesse, who assured him, that, if he would besiege and take Cadiz, the Admiral of Castile and divers other grandees of Spain, would declare for the house of Austria. The Elector of Hanover had resolved to concur in the same measures; the King of the Romans, and Prince Louis of Baden, undertook to invest Landau, while the emperor promised to send a powerful reinforcement into Italy; but death put a period to his projects and his ambition.

William was naturally of a very feeble constitution; and it was by this time almost exhausted, by a series of continual disquietude and action. He had endeavoured to repair his constitution, or at least conceal its decays, by exercise and riding. On the twenty-first day of February, in riding to Hampton-court from Kensington, his horse fell under him, and he was thrown with such violence, that his collar-bone was fractured. His attendants conveyed him to the palace of Hampton-court, where the fracture was

reduced, and in the evening he returned to Kensington in a coach. The jolting of the carriage disunited the fracture; but the bones were replaced under Bidloo his physician. This accident, in a robust constitution, would have been a trifling misfortune; but in him it was fatal. For some time he appeared in a fair way of recovery; but, falling asleep on his couch, he was seized with a shivering, which terminated in a fever and diarrhœa, which soon became dangerous and desperate. Perceiving his end approaching, the objects of his former care lay still next his heart; and the fate of Europe seemed to remove the sensations he might be supposed to feel for his own. The Earl of Albemarle arriving from Holland, he conferred with him in private on the posture of affairs abroad. Two days after, having received the sacrament from Archbishop Tenison, he died in the fifty-second year of his age, after having reigned thirteen years. He was in his person of a middle stature, a thin body, and delicate constitution. He had an aquiline nose, sparkling eyes, a large forehead, and a grave solemn aspect. He left behind him the character of a great politician, though he had never been popular; and that of a formidable general, though he was seldom victorious. His deportment was grave, phlegmatic, and sullen; nor did he ever shew any fire, but in the day of battle. He despised flattery, yet loved dominion. Greater as the Stadtholder of Holland than as King of England; to the one he was a father, to the other a suspicious friend. His character and success served to shew that moderate abilities will achieve the greatest purposes, if the objects aimed at be pursued with perseverance, and planned without unnecessary or ostentatious refinement.

ANNE, DAUGHTER OF JAMES II.

Then *Anne-merotade* and the Stuarts were ended.

ANNE, on coming to the throne, declared war against France; and intrusted the command of her armies to the Duke of Marlborough. This great general had learned the first rudiments of the art of war under the famous Marshal Turenne, having been a volunteer in his army. He was, at first, rather more remarkable for the beauty of his person than the greatness of his talent, and he went in the French camp by the name of the handsome Englishman; but Turenne, who saw deeper into mankind, perceived the superiority of his talents, and prognosticated his future greatness. The first attempt that Marlborough made to deviate from the general practices of the army, which were founded in error, was to advance the subaltern officers, whose merit had hitherto been neglected. Regardless of seniority, wherever he found abilities, he was sure to promote them; and thus he had all the upper ranks of commanders rather remarkable for their skill and talents, than for their age and experience.

In his first campaign, the beginning of July, he repaired to the Camp at Nimeguen, where he found himself at the head of an army of sixty thousand men, well provided with all necessaries, and long disciplined by the best officers of the age. He was opposed on the side of France, by the Duke of Burgundy, grandson to the king, a youth more qualified to grace a court, than to conduct an army; but the real acting general was the Marshal Boufflers, who commanded under him, an officer of courage and activity.

But wherever Marlborough advanced, the French were obliged to retire before him, leaving all Spanish Guelderland at his discretion. The Duke of Burgundy, finding himself obliged to retreat before the allied army, rather than expose himself longer to such a mortifying indignity, returned to Versailles, leaving Boufflers to command alone. Boufflers, confounded at the rapidity of the enemy's progress, retired towards Brabant, where Marlborough had no design to pursue; contented with ending the campaign by taking the city of Liege, in which he found an immense sum of money, and a great number of prisoners. By the success of this campaign Marlborough raised his military character, and confirmed himself in the confidence of the allies, naturally inclined to distrust a foreign commander.

Marlborough, upon his return to London, was received with the most flattering testimonies of public approbation. He was thanked for his services by the house of commons, and was created a duke by the queen. His good fortune seemed to console the nation for some unsuccessful expeditions at sea. Sir John Munden had permitted a French squadron of fourteen ships to escape him, by taking shelter in the harbour of Corunna; for which he was dismissed from the service by Prince George. An attempt was also made upon Cadiz by sea and land, Sir George Rooke commanding the navy, and the Duke of Ormond the land forces; but this also miscarried. The English arms, however, were crowned with success at Vigo. The Duke of Ormond landed with five-and-twenty hundred men, at the distance of six miles from the town; and the fleet forcing its way into the harbour, eight French ships that had taken

refuge there, were burned or otherwise destroyed by the enemy, to prevent them from falling into the hands of the English. Ten ships of war were taken, together with eleven galleons, and above a million of money in silver, which was of more benefit to the captors than to the public. The advantage acquired by this expedition was counterbalanced by the base conduct of some officers in the West Indies. Admiral Benbow, a bold rough seaman, had been stationed in that part of the world with ten ships, to distress the enemy's trade. Being informed that Du Casse, the French admiral, was in those seas with a force equal to his own, he resolved to attack him; and soon after discovered the enemy's squadron near St. Martha, steering along the shore. He quickly gave orders to his captains, formed the line of battle, and the engagement began. He found, however, that the rest of the fleet had taken some disgust at his conduct; and that they permitted him, almost alone, to sustain the whole fire of the enemy. Nevertheless, the engagement continued till night, and he determined to renew it the next morning, but had the mortification to perceive that all the rest of the ships had fallen back, except one, who joined with him in urging the pursuit of the enemy. For four days did this intrepid seaman, assisted only by one ship, pursue and engage the enemy, while his cowardly officers, at a distance behind, remained spectators of his activity. His last day's battle was more furious than all the former; alone, and unsustained by the rest, he engaged the whole French squadron, when his leg was shattered by a cannon-ball. He then ordered that they should place him in a cradle, upon the quarter-deck; and there he continued to give orders as before,

till at last the ship became quite disabled, and was unfit to continue the chase. When one of his lieutenants expressed his sorrow for the loss of the admiral's leg, "I am sorry for it too," cried Benbow, "but I would rather have lost both my legs than see the dishonour of this day. But do you hear, if another shot should take me off, behave like brave men, and fight it out." He soon after died of his wounds; and his cowardly associates, Kirby and Wade, were tried by a court-martial, and sentenced to be shot. Hudson died before his trial. Constable, Vincent, and Fog, came off with slighter punishment. Kirby and Wade were sent home in the Bristol man of war, and, on their arrival at Plymouth, shot on board the ship, by virtue of a warrant for their immediate execution, which had lain there for some time.

The Duke of Marlborough crossed the sea in the beginning of April, and, assembling the allied army, resolved to shew that his former successes only spurred him on to new triumphs. The French king had appointed Marshal Villeroy to head the army of opposition; for Boufflers was no longer thought an equal to the enterprising Duke. Villeroy was son of the French king's governor, and had been educated with that monarch. He had been always the favourite of Louis, and had long been a sharer in his amusements, his campaigns, and his glory. He was brave, generous, and polite, but unequal to the great task of commanding an army; and still more so, when opposed to so great a rival. Marlborough, therefore, who was peculiarly famous for studying the disposition and abilities of the general he was to oppose, having no very great fears from his present antagonist, instead of going forward to meet him, flew to the

succour of the emperor, as had been already agreed at the commencement of the campaign. The English general, who was resolved to strike a vigorous blow for his relief, traversed extensive countries by hasty marches, arrived at the banks of the Danube, defeated a body of French and Bavarians, stationed at Donawert to oppose him, then passed the Danube with his triumphant army, and laid the dukedom of Bavaria, that had sided with the enemy, under contribution. Villeroy, who at first attempted to follow his motions, seemed all at once to have lost sight of his enemy; nor was he apprized of his route, till informed of his successes. Marshal Tallard prepared by another route to obstruct the Duke of Marlborough's retreat with an army of thirty thousand men. He was soon after joined by the Bavarian forces, so that the army in that part of the continent amounted to sixty thousand veterans, commanded by the two best reputed generals then in France.

Tallard had established his reputation by many former victories; he was active and penetrating, and had risen by his merits alone to the first station in the army. But his ardour often rose to impetuosity; and he was so shortsighted as to be incapable of seeing objects at a very small distance. The Duke of Bavaria was equally experienced in the field, and had still stronger motives for his activity. His country was ravaged and pillaged before his eyes, and nothing remained of his possessions but the army which he commanded. It was in vain that he sent entreaties to the enemy to stop the fury of their incursions, and to spare his people: the only answer he received was, that it lay in his own power to make his enemies friends, by alliance or submission. To

oppose these powerful generals, Marlborough was now joined by a body of thirty thousand men, under the conduct of Prince Eugene, whose troops were well disciplined, but still more formidable by the conduct and fame of their general. Prince Eugene had been bred up from his infancy in camps, he was almost equal to Marlborough in intrigue, and his superior in the art of war. Their talents were of a similar kind; and, instead of any mean rivalry or jealousy between such eminent persons, they concurred in the same designs; for the same good sense determined them always to the same object.

This allied army, at the head of which Eugene and Marlborough commanded, amounted to about fifty-two thousand men, troops that had long been accustomed to conquer, and that had seen the French, the Turks, and the Russians fly before them. The French, as was already observed, amounted to sixty thousand, who had shared in the conquests of their great monarch, and had been familiar with victory. Both armies, after many marchings and counter-marchings, approached each other. The French were posted on a hill near the town of Hochstet; their right covered by the Danube, and the village of Blenheim; their left by the village of Lutzingen; and their front by a rivulet, the banks of which were steep, and the bottom marshy. It was in this advantageous position that the allied army resolved to attack them. As this engagement, which has since been known by the name of the battle of Blenheim, both from the talents of the generals, the improvements in the art of war, and the number and discipline of the troops, is reckoned the most remarkable of this century, it demands a more par-

ticular detail than I have usually allotted to such narrations.

The right wing of the French, which was covered by the Danube and the village of Blenheim, was commanded by Mareschal Tallard. Their left defended by another village, was commanded by the Duke of Bavaria, and under him by general Marsin, an experienced Frenchman. In the front of their army ran a rivulet, which seemed to defend them from an attack; and in this position they were willing to await the enemy, rather than offer battle. On the other hand, Marlborough and Eugene were stimulated to engage them at any rate, by an intercepted letter from Villeroy, who was left behind, intimating that he was preparing to cut off all communication between the Rhine and the allied army. The dispositions being made for the attack, and the orders communicated to the general officers, the allied forces advanced into the plain, and were ranged in order of battle. The cannonading began about nine in the morning, and continued to about half after twelve. Then the troops advanced to the attack; the right under the direction of Prince Eugene, the left headed by Marlborough, and opposed to Mareschal Tallard.

Marlborough, at the head of his English troops, having passed the rivulet, attacked the cavalry of Tallard with great bravery. This general was at that time reviewing the disposition of his troops to the left; and his cavalry fought for some time without the presence of their commander. Prince Eugene on the left hand had not yet attacked the forces of the elector: and it was near an hour before he could bring up his troops to the engagement.

Tallard was no sooner informed that his right was attacked by the duke, than he flew to its head, where he found a furious encounter already begun; his cavalry being thrice driven back, and rallying as often. He had posted a large body of forces in the village of Blenheim; and he made an attempt to bring them to the charge. They were attacked by a detachment of Marlborough's forces so vigorously, that, instead of assisting the main body, they could hardly maintain their ground. All the French cavalry, being attacked in flank, were totally defeated. The English army, thus half victorious, penetrated between the two bodies of the French commanded by the mareschal and elector, while at the same time the forces in the village of Blenheim were separated by another detachment. In this distressed situation, Tallard flew to rally some squadrons; but, from his short-sightedness, mistaking a detachment of the enemy, for his own, he was taken prisoner by the Hessian troops, who were in English pay. In the mean time, Prince Eugene, after having been thrice repulsed, threw the enemy into confusion. The rout then became general, and the flight precipitate. The consternation was such, that the French soldiers threw themselves into the Danube, without knowing where they fled. The officers lost all their authority, and there was no general left to secure a retreat.

The allies now being masters of the field of battle, surrounded the village of Blenheim, where a body of thirteen thousand men had been posted in the beginning of the action, and still kept their ground. These troops, seeing themselves cut off from all communication with the rest of the army, threw down their arms, and surrendered themselves prisoners of

war. Thus ended the battle of Blenheim, one of the most complete victories that was ever gained. Twelve thousand French and Bavarians were slain in the field, or drowned in the Danube, and thirteen thousand were made prisoners of war. Of the allies, about five thousand men were killed, and eight thousand wounded or taken. The loss of the battle was imputed to two capital errors committed by Mareschal Tallard: namely, his weakening the centre by placing so large a body of troops in Blenheim, and his suffering the English to cross the rivulet, and form on the other side.

The next day, when the Duke of Marlborough visited his prisoner, the mareschal, intending a compliment, assured him that he had overcome the best troops in the world; "I hope, sir," replied the duke, "you will except those troops by whom they were conquered." A country of a hundred leagues in extent fell by this defeat into the hands of the victors. Not contented with these conquests, the duke, soon after he had closed the campaign, repaired to Berlin, where he procured a reinforcement of eight thousand Prussians to serve under Prince Eugene in Italy. Thence he proceeded to negotiate for succours at the court of Hanover, and soon after returned to England, where he found the people in a frenzy of joy. He was received as the deliverer of the state, as one who had retrieved the glory of the nation. The parliament and the people were ready to second him in all his designs. The manor of Woodstock was conferred upon him for his services by both houses; an eulogium was pronounced upon his important services by the lord-keeper as he entered the house of lords. The queen was not only pleased

with these marks of respect shewn him, but also ordered the comptroller of her works to build in Woodstock-park a magnificent palace for the duke, which remains to this day a monument, as the best judges now begin to think, not less of his victories, than of the skill of the architect who raised it.

The taking of Gibraltar, which was effected by Sir George Rooke, was a conquest of which the Spaniards knew the loss, though we seemed ignorant of the value. Philip, King of Spain, alarmed at the reduction of that fortress, sent the Marquis of Villadarias with a large army to retake it. France also sent a fleet of thirteen ships of the line; but a part of this was dispersed by a tempest, and part was taken by the English. Nor was the land army more successful. The siege continued for four months, during which time the Prince of Hesse, who commanded the town for the English, exhibited many proofs of valour. At length the Spaniards, having attempted to scale the rock in vain, finding no hopes of taking the place, were contented to draw off their men, and abandon the enterprise.

While the English were thus victorious by land and sea, a new scene of contention was opened on the side of Spain, where the ambition of the European princes exerted itself with the same fury that had filled the rest of the continent. Philip, Duke of Anjou, grandson of Louis the Fourteenth, had been placed upon the throne of that kingdom, and had been received with the joyful concurrence of the greatest part of his subjects. He had also been nominated successor to the crown by the will of the late King of Spain. But, in a former treaty among the powers of Europe, Charles, son of the Emperor of Germany, was ap-

pointed heir to that crown; and this treaty had been guaranteed by France herself, though she now resolved to reverse that consent in favour of a descendant of the house of Bourbon. Charles was still farther led on to put in for the crown of Spain, by the invitation of the Catalonians, who declared in his favour, and by the assistance of the English and the Portuguese, who promised to arm in his cause. Upon his way to his newly assumed dominion he landed in England, where he was received on shore by the Dukes of Somerset and Marlborough, who conducted him to Windsor. The queen's deportment to him was equally noble and obliging, while on his side he gave general satisfaction, by the politeness and affability of his demeanour. He was furnished with two hundred transports, thirty ships of war, and nine thousand men, for the conquest of that extensive empire. But the Earl of Peterborough, a man of romantic bravery, offered to conduct them: and his single service was thought equivalent to armies.

The Earl of Peterborough was one of the most singular and extraordinary men of the age in which he lived. When very young, he fought against the Moors in Africa: he afterwards assisted in compassing the Revolution; and he now carried on the war in Spain almost at his own expense,—his friendship for the archduke Charles being one of his chief motives to this great undertaking. He was deformed in his person; but of a mind the most generous, honourable, and active. His first attempt upon landing in Spain was to besiege Barcelona, a strong city with a garrison of five thousand men, while his own army amounted to little more than nine thousand. The operations were begun by a sudden attack on Fort Monjuic,

strongly situated on a hill that commanded the city. The outworks were taken by storm; and a shell chancing to fall into the body of the fort, the powder magazine was blown up. This struck the garrison that defended the fort with such consternation, that they surrendered without farther resistance.

The town still remained unconquered; but batteries were erected against it, and after a few days the governor capitulated. During the interval, which was taken up in demanding and signing the necessary forms upon these occasions, a body of Germans and Catalonians, belonging to the English army, entered the town, and were plundering all before them. The governor, who was then treating with the English general, thought himself betrayed, and upbraided that nobleman's treachery. Peterborough, struck with the suddenness of the transaction, left the writings unfinished, and, flying among the plunderers, drove them from their prey, and then returned calmly and signed the capitulation. The Spaniards were equally amazed at the generosity of the English, and the baseness of their own countrymen, who had led on to the spoil. The conquest of all Valencia succeeded the taking of this important place. The enemy endeavoured indeed to retake Barcelona, but were repulsed with loss, and the affairs of Philip seemed desperate. The party that acknowledged Charles was every day increasing. He became master of a considerable part of the kingdom; and the way to Madrid lay open to him. The Earl of Galway entered that city in triumph, and there proclaimed Charles King of Spain, without any opposition.

In the mean time the English paid very little regard to these victories; for their whole attention was taken

up by the splendour of their conquests in Flanders; and the Duke of Marlborough took care that they should still have something to wonder at. He had early in the spring opened the campaign, and brought an army of eighty thousand men into the field, which was greater than what he had hitherto been able to muster. But still he expected reinforcements from Denmark and Prussia; and the court of France resolved to attack him before this junction. Villeroy, who commanded their army, consisting of eighty thousand men, near Tirlemont, had orders to act upon the defensive; but, if compelled, to hazard an engagement. The duke, on the other hand, had received a slight repulse by the defection of Prince Louis of Baden; and he resolved to retrieve his credit by some signal action. Villeroy had drawn up his forces in a strong camp; his right was flanked by the river Mehaigne; his left was posted behind a marsh, and the village of Ramillies lay in the centre. Marlborough, who perceived this disposition, drew up his army accordingly. He knew that the left wing of the enemy could not pass the marsh to attack him but at a great disadvantage; he therefore weakened his troops in that quarter, and thundered on the centre with superior numbers. The enemy's centre was soon obliged to yield in consequence of this attack, and at length gave way on all sides. The horse, abandoning their foot, were so closely pursued, that almost all were cut to pieces. Six thousand men were taken prisoners, and about eight thousand were killed and wounded. This victory was almost as signal as that of Blenheim; Bavaria and Cologne were the fruits of the one, and all Brabant was gained by the other. The French troops were

dispirited; the city of Paris was in confusion. Louis, who had long been flattered with conquest, was now humbled to such a degree as almost to excite the compassion of his enemies. He entreated for peace, but in vain; the allies carried all before them, and his very capital began to dread the approach of the conquerors. What neither his power, his armies, nor his politics, could effect, was brought about by a party in England. The dissension between the Whigs and Tories in England saved France, now tottering on the brink of ruin. It does not, however, consist with the plan of a brief history to detail these parliamentary contests.

After the battle of Ramillies, the King of France had employed the Elector of Bavaria, to write letters in his name to the Duke of Marlborough, containing proposals for opening a congress. He offered to give up either Spain and its dominions, or the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, to Charles of Austria, and to give a barrier to the Dutch in the Netherlands. But these terms were rejected. The Dutch were intoxicated with success; and the Duke of Marlborough had every motive to continue the war, as it gratified not only his ambition but his avarice; a passion that obscured his shining abilities.

The duke was resolved to push his good fortune. At the head of a numerous army, he approached the village of Oudenarde, where the French, in equal numbers, were posted. A furious engagement ensued, in which the French were obliged to retire, and took the advantage of the night to secure their retreat. About three thousand were slain on the field of battle, seven thousand were taken prisoners, and the number of their deserters was not a few. In consequence of

this victory, Lisle, the strongest town in all Flanders, was taken after an obstinate siege. Ghent followed soon after; while Bruges and other Flemish towns were abandoned by their defenders. Thus this campaign ended with fixing a barrier to the Dutch dominions, and it now only remained to force a way into the provinces of the enemy.

The repeated successes of the allies once more induced the French king to offer terms of peace. In these he was resolved to sacrifice all considerations of pride and ambition, as well as the interests of his grandson of Spain, to a measure which had become so necessary and indispensable. A conference ensued, in which the allies rose in their demands, without, however, stipulating any thing in favour of the English. The demands were rejected by France; and that exhausted kingdom once more prepared for another campaign.

Tournay, one of the strongest cities in Flanders, was, in the next campaign, the first object of the operations of the allied army, which now amounted to one hundred and ten thousand fighting men. Though the garrison did not exceed twelve thousand men, yet the place was so strong, both by art and nature, that it was probable the siege might last a considerable time. Nothing could be more terrible than the manner of engaging on both sides. As the besiegers proceeded by sapping, their troops that were conducting the mines frequently met with those of the enemy underground, and furiously engaged in subterraneous conflicts. The volunteers presented themselves, in the midst of mines and counter-mines, ready primed for explosion, and added new horrors to their gloomy situation. Sometimes they were killed by accident,

sometimes sprung up by design ; while thousands of those bold men were thus buried at once by the falling-in of the earth, or blown up into the air from below. At length, after an obstinate resistance, the town was surrendered upon conditions, and the garrison of the citadel soon after were made prisoners of war.

The bloody battle of Malplaquet followed soon after. The French army, under the conduct of the great Mareschal Villars, amounting to a hundred and twenty thousand men, were posted behind the woods of La Merte and Tanieres, in the neighbourhood of Malplaquet. They had fortified their situation in such a manner with lines, hedges, and trees laid across, that they seemed to be quite inaccessible. The duke's motives for attacking them at such a disadvantage to himself are not well known ; but certainly this was the most rash and ill-judged attempt during all his campaigns. On the thirty-first of August, 1709, early in the morning, the allied army, favoured by a thick fog, began the attack. The chief fury of their impression was made upon the left of the enemy, and with such success, that, notwithstanding their lines and barricades, the French were in less than an hour driven from their entrenchments. But on the enemy's right the combat was sustained with much greater obstinacy. The Dutch, who carried on the attack, drove them from their first line, but were repulsed from the second with great slaughter. The Prince of Orange, who headed that attack, persisted in his efforts with incredible perseverance and intrepidity, though two horses had been killed under him, and the greater part of his officers slain and disabled. At last, however, the

French were obliged to yield up the field of battle; but not till after having sold a dear victory. Villars being dangerously wounded, they made an excellent retreat under the conduct of Boufflers, and took post near Le Quesnoy and Valenciennes. The conquerors took possession of the field of battle, on which twenty thousand of their best troops lay slain. Mareschal Villars confidently asserted, that if he had not been disabled, he would have gained a certain victory; and it is probable, from that general's former successes, that what he said was true. The city of Mons was the reward of this victory, which surrendered shortly after to the allied army; and with this conquest the allies concluded the campaign.

Though the events of this campaign were more favourable to Louis than he had reason to expect, he still continued desirous of peace, and once more resolved to solicit a conference; but his ministers were subjected to every species of mortification and insult. He therefore resolved to hazard another campaign, not without hope that some lucky incident in the event of war, or some happy change in the ministry of England, might procure him more favourable concessions.

Upon the death of the Earl of Essex, who was colonel of a regiment under the duke, the queen resolved to bestow it on a person who, she knew, was entirely displeasing to him. She therefore sent him word that she wished he would give it to Mr. Hill, brother to her favourite, Mrs. Masham, as a person every way qualified for the command. The duke was struck with this request, which he considered as a previous step to his own disgrace. He represented to the queen the prejudice that would redound to the

service from the promotion of so young an officer, and the jealousy that would be felt by his seniors, never considering that he himself was a younger officer than many of those he commanded. He expostulated with her on this extraordinary mark of partiality in favour of Mrs. Masham's brother, who had treated him with such peculiar ingratitude. To all this the queen made no other reply, but that he would do well to consult his friends. He retired in disgust, and sat down to prepare a letter to the queen, in which he begged leave to resign all his employments.

In the mean time the queen, who was conscious of the popularity of her conduct, went to the council, where she seemed not to take the least notice of the duke's absence. The whole junto of his friends, which almost entirely composed the council, did not fail to alarm her with the consequence of disobliging so useful a servant. She therefore for some time dissembled her resentment; and even went so far as to send the duke a letter, empowering him to dispose of the regiment as he thought proper. But still she was too sensibly mortified at many parts of his conduct, not to wish for his removal; yet for the present she insisted on his continuing in command.

She acted with less duplicity towards the duchess, who, supposing from the queen's present condescension, that she was willing to be pacified, resolved once more to practise the long-forgotten arts by which she rose. She therefore demanded an audience of her majesty, on pretence of vindicating her character from some aspersions. She hoped to work upon the queen's tenderness, by tears, entreaties, and supplications. But all her humiliations served only to render her more contemptible to herself. The queen

heard her without exhibiting the least emotion of tenderness or pity. The only answer she gave to the torrent of the others entreaties, was a repetition of an insolent expression used in one of this lady's own letters to her: "You desired no answer, and you shall have none."

Having prepared the nation for the event, it only now remained to remove the Duke of Marlborough from his post. But here again a difficulty started; this step could not be taken without giving offence to the Dutch, who placed entire confidence in him; they were obliged, therefore, to wait for some convenient occasion. But, in the mean time the duke headed his army in Flanders, and led on his forces against Marshal Villars, who seemed resolved to hazard a battle. His last attempt in the field is said, by those who understand the art of war, to have excelled every former exploit. He contrived his measures so, that he induced the enemy, by marching and counter-marching, to resign, without a blow, a strong line of entrenchments, of which he unexpectedly took possession. The capture of Bouchain followed this enterprise, which capitulated after a siege of twenty days; and this was the last military expedition that the Duke of Marlborough performed. And now, by a continuance of conduct and success, by ever advancing, and never losing an advantage, by gaining the enemy's posts without fighting, and the confidence of his own soldiers without generosity, the duke ended his campaigns, by leaving the allies in possession of a vast tract of country. They had reduced under their command Spanish Guelderland, Limbourg, Brabant, Flanders, and Hainault; they were masters of the Scarpe, and the capture of Bouchain had opened them

a way into the very bowels of France. Upon his return from this campaign, he was accused of having taken a bribe of six thousand pounds a year from a Jew, who contracted to supply the army with bread; and the queen thought proper to dismiss him from all his employments.

This was the pretext of which his enemies made use; but his fall had been predetermined: and though his receiving such a bribe was not the real cause of his removal, yet candour must confess that it ought to have been so. The desire of accumulating money was a passion that attended this general in all his triumphs: and by this he threw a stain upon his character, which all his great abilities have not been able to remove. He not only received this gratuity from Medina the Jew, but he was also allowed ten thousand pounds a year from the queen; to this he added a deduction of two and a half per cent from the pay of the foreign troops maintained by England; and all this over and above his ordinary pay as general of the British forces. Many excuses might have been given for his acceptance of these sums; but a great character ought not to stand in need of any excuse. The peace of Europe was finally settled by the treaty of Utrecht.

The queen's health being on the decline, the Elector of Hanover was invited over to England, and at her death succeeded to the throne.

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

MEMORIAL VERSES.

The first George-mermudo, as Sovereign was hail'd ;
George the Second-merard, the Pretender assail'd.
The third George-merectod, our father and friend ;
The fourth George-miatod, whose reign hath antend ;
The fourth William-mintod, whom heaven defend.

GEORGE I. DESCENDANT FROM JAMES I.

ON the death of Anne, the Jacobites indulged a hope that the ministry would set aside the act of settlement, by virtue of which the Elector of Hanover was to ascend the throne of England. Their disappointment on finding George I. firmly seated in the realm, found some vent in useless endeavours to forward the views of the Pretender. This aspirant, son of James II., was the true heir to the throne in the Stuart line : the first acknowledgment of his claims to the kingdom was manifested in Scotland.

The Earl of Mar assembled three hundred of his own vassals on the Highlands, proclaimed the Pretender at Castletown, and set up his standard at a place called Brae-mar, assuming the title of lieutenant-general of his majesty's forces. To second these attempts, two vessels arrived in Scotland from France, with arms, ammunition, and a number of officers, together with assurances to the earl, that the Pre-

tender himself would shortly come over to head his own forces. The earl, in consequence of this promise, soon found himself at the head of ten thousand men, well armed and provided. He secured the pass of Tay at Perth, where his head-quarters were established, and made himself master of the whole fruitful province of Fife, and all the sea-coast on that side of the frith of Edinburgh. He marched from thence to Dumblaine, as if he had intended to cross the Forth at Stirling-bridge: but there he was informed of the preparations the Duke of Argyle was making, who was raising forces to give him battle.

This nobleman, whose family had suffered so much under the Stuart line, was still possessed of his hereditary hatred; and upon this occasion he was appointed commander-in-chief of all the forces of North Britain. The Earl of Sutherland also went down to Scotland to raise forces for the service of government; and many other Scottish peers followed the example. The Earl of Mar, being informed that the duke was advancing against him from Stirling, with the discontented clans, assisted by some troops from Ireland, at first thought it most prudent to retreat. But being soon after joined by some of the clans under the Earl of Seaforth, and others under General Gordon, an experienced officer, who signalized himself in the Russian service, he resolved to face the enemy, and directed his march towards the south.

The Duke of Argyle, apprized of his intentions, and at any rate willing to prove his attachment to the present government, resolved to give him battle in the neighbourhood of Dumblaine, though his forces did not amount to half the number of the enemy. In the morning he drew up his army, which did not exceed

three thousand five hundred men, in order of battle; but he soon found himself greatly outflanked by the enemy. The duke, perceiving the earl making attempts to surround him, was obliged to alter his disposition, which, on account of the scarcity of general officers, was not done so expeditiously as to be finished before the rebels began the attack. The left wing, therefore, of the duke's army received the centre of the enemy, and supported the first charge without shrinking. It seemed even for a while victorious, as the Earl of Clanronald, who commanded against it, was killed on the spot. But Glengary, who was second in command, undertook to inspire his intimidated forces; and, waving his bonnet, cried out several times, "Revenge!" This animated the rebel troops to such a degree, that they followed him close to the points of the enemy's bayonets, and got within their guard. A total rout began to ensue of that wing of the royal army; and general Whetham, their commander, flying full speed to Stirling, gave out that all was lost, and that the rebels were completely victorious. In the mean time, the Duke of Argyle, who commanded in person on the right, attacked the left of the enemy, and drove them before him two miles, though they often faced about, and attempted to rally. Having thus entirely broken that wing, and driven them over the river Allan, he returned to the field of battle, where, to his great mortification, he found the enemy victorious, and patiently waiting the assault. However, instead of renewing the engagement, both armies continued to gaze at each other, neither caring to begin the attack. At evening, both sides drew off, and both claimed the victory. Though the possession of the field was kept by neither, yet certainly all the

honour, and all the advantages of the day, belonged to the Duke of Argyle. It was sufficient for him to have interrupted the progress of the enemy; for, in their circumstances, delay was defeat. In fact, the Earl of Mar soon found his disappointments and his losses increase. The castle of Inverness, of which he was in possession, was delivered up to the king by Lord Lovat, who had hitherto professed to act in the interest of the Pretender. The Marquis of Tullibardine forsook the earl, in order to defend his own part of the country; and many of the clans, seeing no likelihood of coming soon to a second engagement, returned quietly home; for an irregular army is much more easily led to battle, than induced to bear the fatigues of a campaign.

In the mean time, the rebellion was still more unsuccessfully prosecuted in England. From the time the Pretender had undertaken this wild project at Paris, in which the Duke of Ormond and Lord Bolingbroke were engaged, Lord Stair, the British Ambassador in France, had penetrated all his designs, and sent faithful accounts of all his measures, and all his adherents, to the ministry at home. Upon the first rumour, therefore, of an insurrection, they imprisoned several lords and gentlemen, of whom they had a suspicion. The Earls of Home, Wintoun, and Kinnoul, and others, were committed to the castle of Edinburgh. The king obtained leave from the lower house to seize Sir William Wyndham, Sir George Packington, Kynaston, Hervey, and others. The Lords Lansdown and Duplin were taken into custody. Sir William Wyndham's father-in-law, the Duke of Somerset, offered to become bond for his appearance; but his surety was refused.

But all these precautions were not able to stop the insurrection in the western counties, where it was already begun. However, all their preparations were weak and ill conducted; every measure was betrayed to government as soon as projected, and many revolts repressed in the very onset. The university of Oxford was treated with great severity on this occasion. Major-general Pepper, with a strong detachment of dragoons, took possession of the city at day-break, declaring he would instantly shoot any of the students who should presume to appear without the limits of their respective colleges. The insurrection of the northern counties came to greater maturity. In October, the Earl of Derwentwater, and Mr. Foster, took the field with a body of horse, and, being joined by some gentlemen from the borders of Scotland, proclaimed the Pretender. Their first attempt was to seize Newcastle, in which they had many friends; but they found the gates shut against them, and were obliged to retire to Hexham. To oppose these, General Carpenter was detached by government with a body of nine hundred men, and an engagement was hourly expected. The rebels had two methods by which they might have conducted themselves with prudence. The one was, to march directly into the western parts of Scotland, and there join General Gordon, who commanded a strong body of Highlanders. The other was, to cross the Tweed, and boldly attack General Carpenter, whose forces did not exceed their own. The infatuation attendant on that party, prevented the adoption of either of these measures. They took the route to Jedburgh, where they hoped to leave Carpenter on one side, and penetrate into England by the western border. This was the

effectual means to cut themselves off either from retreat or assistance. A party of Highlanders, who had joined them by this time, at first refused to accompany them in this desperate irruption, and one half of them actually returned to their own country. At Brampton, Mr. Foster opened his commission of general, which had been sent him by the Earl of Mar, and there he proclaimed the Pretender. They continued their march to Penrith, where the body of the militia, assembled to oppose them, fled at their appearance. From Penrith they proceeded, by the way of Kendal and Lancaster, to Preston, of which place they took possession, without any resistance. But this was the last stage of their ill-advised incursion; for General Wills, at the head of seven thousand men, came up to the town to attack them; and from his activity there was no escaping. They now therefore began to raise barricades, to put the place in a posture of defence, repulsing the first attack of the royal army with success. Next day, however, Wills was reinforced by Carpenter, and the town was invested on all sides. In this deplorable situation, to which they were reduced by their own rashness, Foster hoped to capitulate with the general, and accordingly sent Colonel Oxburgh, who had been taken prisoner, with a trumpeter, to propose a capitulation. This, however, Wills refused, alleging that he would not treat with rebels, and that the only favour they had to expect was, to be spared from immediate slaughter. These were hard terms; but no better could be obtained. They accordingly laid down their arms, and were put under a strong guard; all the noblemen and leaders were secured, and a few of their officers tried for deserting from the royal

army, and shot by order of a court-martial. The common men were imprisoned at Chester and Liverpool; the noblemen and considerable officers were sent to London, and led through the streets, pinioned and bound together to intimidate their party.

Such was the success of two expeditions set on foot in favour of the Pretender, in neither of which appear the smallest traces of conduct or design. But the conduct of his party on this side of the water was wisdom itself, compared to that with which it was managed at Paris. Bolingbroke there had been made his secretary, and Ormond his prime-minister. But these statesmen quickly found that nothing could be done in favour of his cause. The King of France, who had ever espoused the interest of the abdicated family, was just dead; and the Duke of Orleans, who succeeded in the government of the kingdom, was averse to lending the Pretender any assistance. His party, however, which was composed of the lowest and most ignorant exiles from the British dominions, affected the utmost confidence, and boasted of a certainty of success. The deepest secrets of his cabinet, and all his intended measures, were bandied about in coffee-houses, by persons of the lowest rank, both in fortune and abilities. Subaltern officers resolved to be his generals; and even prostitutes were intrusted to manage his negotiations. Little, therefore, could be expected from such assistance and such counsels.

He might by this time have been convinced of the vanity of his expectations, in supposing that the whole country would rise up in his cause. His affairs were actually desperate; yet, with his usual infatuation, he resolved to hazard his person among his friends in

Scotland, at a time when such a measure was too late for success. Passing, therefore, through France in disguise, and embarking in a small vessel at Dunkirk, he arrived, after a voyage of a few days, on the coast of Scotland, with only six gentlemen in his train. He passed unknown through Aberdeen to Feterosse, where he was met by the Earl of Mar, and about thirty noblemen and gentlemen of the first quality. There he was solemnly proclaimed. His declaration, dated at Commercy, was printed and dispersed. He thence went to Dundee, where he made a public entry; and in two days more he arrived at Scone, where he intended to have the ceremony of his coronation performed. He ordered thanksgivings to be made for his safe arrival; he enjoined the ministers to pray for him in their churches; and, without the smallest share of power, went through the ceremonies of royalty, which threw an air of ridicule on all his conduct. Having thus spent some time in unimportant parade, he resolved to abandon the enterprise with the same levity with which it was undertaken. Having made a speech to his grand council, he informed them of his want of money, arms, and ammunition for undertaking a campaign, and therefore lamented that he was compelled to leave them. He embarked in a small French ship that lay in the harbour of Montrose, accompanied with several lords, his adherents, and in five days arrived at Gravelines.

General Gordon, who was left commander-in-chief of the forces, proceeded at their head to Aberdeen, where he secured three vessels to sail northward, which took on board such persons as intended to make their escape to the continent. He then continued his march through the Highlands, and quietly

dismissed his forces as he went forward. This retreat was made with such expedition, that the Duke of Argyle, with all his activity, could never overtake his rear, which consisted of a thousand horse.

In this manner ended a rebellion, which nothing but imbecility could project, and nothing but rashness support. But, though the enemy was now no more, the fury of the victors did not seem in the least to abate with success. The law was now put in force with all its terrors; and the prisons of London were crowded with these deluded wretches, whom the ministry seemed resolved not to pardon. The commons, in their address to the crown, declared that they would prosecute in the most rigorous manner the authors of the late rebellion; and their resolutions were as speedy as their measures were vindictive. The Earls of Derwentwater, Nithsdale, Carnwath, and Wintoun, the Lords Widrington, Kenmuir, and Nairne, were impeached, and, upon pleading guilty, all but Lord Wintoun, received sentence of death. No entreaties could soften the ministry to spare these unhappy men. The house of lords even presented an address to the throne for mercy, but without effect; the king only answered, that on this, and all other occasions, he would act as he thought most consistent with the dignity of the crown and the safety of his people.

Orders were accordingly despatched for executing the Lords Derwentwater, Nithsdale, and Kenmuir, immediately; the others were respited. Nithsdale, however, had the good fortune to escape in woman's clothes, which were brought him by his mother the night before his intended execution. Derwentwater and Kenmuir were brought to the scaffold on Tower-

hill at the time appointed. Both underwent their sentence with calm intrepidity, pitied by all, and seemingly less moved themselves than those who beheld them. Derwentwater was particularly regretted, as he was generous, hospitable, and humane. His fortune being large, he gave bread to multitudes of the poor, by whom he was considered as a parent and a protector.

John Law, a Scotchman, had erected a company under the name of the Mississippi, which promised the people great wealth, but ended in involving the French nation in great distress. It was now that the people of England were deceived by a project entirely similar, which is remembered by the name of the South-sea scheme, and was felt long after by thousands. To explain this as concisely as possible, it is to be observed, that ever since the revolution under king William, the government not having sufficient supplies granted by parliament, or what was granted requiring time to be collected, they were obliged to borrow money from different companies of merchants; and, among the rest, from that company which traded to the South-sea. In the year 1716, the government was indebted to this company about nine millions and a half of money, for which they granted interest at the rate of six per cent. As this company was not the only one to which the government was indebted, and paid such large yearly interest, Sir Robert Walpole conceived a design of lessening these national debts, by giving the several companies an alternative either of accepting lower interest, namely five per cent., or of having the principal paid. The different companies chose rather to accept the diminished interest, than to receive the principal.

The South-sea company, in particular, having made up their debt to the government ten millions, instead of six hundred thousand pounds, which they usually received as interest, were satisfied with five hundred thousand. In the same manner, the governor and company of the Bank, and other companies, were contented to receive a diminished annual interest for their respective loans; all which greatly lessened the debts of the nation.

It was in this situation of things that one Blount, who had been bred a scrivener, and was possessed of all the cunning and plausibility requisite for such an undertaking, proposed to the ministry, in the name of the South-sea company, to buy up all the debts of the different companies, and thus to become the sole creditor of the state. The terms he offered to government were extremely advantageous. The South-sea company was to redeem the debts of the nation out of the hands of the private proprietors, who were creditors to the government, upon whatever terms they could agree on; and for the interest of this money, which they had thus redeemed, and taken into their own hands, they would be contented to be allowed by government, for six years, five per cent,—then the interest should be reduced to four per cent., and should at any time be redeemable by parliament. Thus far all was fair, and all was reasonable. For these purposes a bill passed both houses; but now came the part of the scheme big with fraud and ruin. As the directors of the South-sea company could not of themselves be supposed to possess money sufficient to buy up the debts of the nation, they were empowered to raise it by opening a subscription to a scheme for trading to the South-seas, from which commerce immense ad-

vantages were promised, and still greater expected by the rapacious credulity of the people. All people, therefore, who were creditors to government, were invited to come in, and exchange their securities, namely, the Government for the South-sea company. Many were the advantages they were taught to expect from having their money traded with in a commerce to and from the southern parts of America, where it was reported that the English were to have a new settlement granted them by the King of Spain.

The directors' books were no sooner opened for the first subscription, than crowds came to make the exchange of government stock for south-sea stock. The delusion was artfully continued and spread. Subscriptions in a few days sold for double the price they had been bought at. The scheme succeeded beyond even the projector's hopes; and the whole nation was infected with a spirit of avaricious enterprise. The infatuation prevailed; the stock increased to a surprising degree, and to near ten times the value of what it was at first subscribed for.

After a few months, however, the people awoke from their dream of riches, and found that all the advantages they expected were merely imaginary, while thousands of families were involved in one common ruin. Many of the directors, by whose arts the people were taught to expect such great benefits from a traffic to the South-seas, had amassed considerable fortunes by the credulity of the public. It was one consolation to the people, to find the parliament sharing the general indignation, and resolving to strip those plunderers of their unjust possessions. Orders were first given to remove all the directors of the South-sea company from their seats

in parliament, and the places they possessed under government.

The principal delinquents were punished by a forfeiture of all such possessions and estates as they had acquired during the continuance of this popular frenzy. The next care was, to redress the sufferers. Several useful and just resolutions were taken by parliament; and a bill was prepared for repairing the late sufferings, as far as the inspection of the legislature could extend. Of the profits arising from the South-sea scheme, the sum of seven millions was given back to the original proprietors; several additions were also made to their dividends, out of what was possessed by the company in their own right; and the remaining capital stock was also divided among the old proprietors, at the rate of thirty-three pounds per cent.

In the mean time, petitions from all parts of the kingdom were presented to the house, demanding justice, and the whole nation seemed exasperated to the highest degree. Public credit sustained a terrible shock. Some principal members of the ministry were deeply concerned in these fraudulent transactions. The Bank was drawn upon faster than it could supply, and nothing was heard but the ravings of disappointment and despair.

With the exception of the attempts of the Pretender, and the ruinous consequences of the South-sea scheme, nothing of great interest occurred in this reign, beyond violent contests between the Whigs and Tories—The Hanoverians and the Jacobites.

George I. was a man of moderate abilities: he was in most instances attended with good fortune, which might partly be owing to accident, but more to prudent

assiduity; his successes in life are the strongest instance how much may be achieved by moderate abilities, exerted with application and uniformity. He appears to have been more attached to the subjects he had left, than to those he came to govern; and his predilection for his German connexions caused no little dissatisfaction in the nation. He died in the thirteenth year of his reign, while on a journey to his Hanoverian dominions.

GEORGE II. SON OF GEORGE I.

George the Second-merard, the Pretender assailed.

UPON the death of George I. his son George the Second succeeded to the throne. The chief person, and he who shortly after engrossed the greatest share of power, under him, was Sir Robert Walpole, a man of low origin and great ability.

The most prominent feature of this reign is the attempt of the young Pretender to seat himself on the throne of England. Charles-Edward the adventurer in question, had been bred in a luxurious court, without partaking in its effeminacy. He was enterprising and ambitious, but, either from inexperience or natural inability, utterly unequal to the bold undertaking. He was long flattered by the rash, the superstitious, and the needy; he was taught to believe that the kingdom was ripe for a revolt, and that it could no longer bear the immense load of taxes with which it was burdened.

Being now furnished with some money, and with still larger promises from France, who fanned his ambition, he embarked for Scotland, on board a small

frigate, accompanied by the Marquis of Tullibardine, Sir Thomas Sheridan, and a few other desperate adventurers. Thus, for the conquest of the whole British empire, he only brought with him seven officers, and arms for two thousand men.

Fortune, which ever persecuted his family, seemed no way more favourable to him: his convoy, a ship of sixty guns, was so disabled in an engagement with an English man-of-war, named the *Lion*, that it was obliged to return to Brest, while he continued his course to the western parts of Scotland, and landing on the coast of Lochaber, was in a little time joined by some chiefs of the Highland clans, and their vassals, over whom they exercised an hereditary jurisdiction. By means of these chiefs he soon saw himself at the head of fifteen hundred men, and invited others to join him by his manifestoes, which were dispersed all over the kingdom, to animate all the secret abettors of his cause.

The boldness of this enterprise astonished all Europe: it awakened the fears of the pusillanimous, the ardour of the brave, and the pity of the wise.

The whole kingdom seemed unanimously bent upon opposing an enterprise which they were sensible, as being supported by Papists, would be instrumental in restoring popery. The ministers were no sooner confirmed in the account of his arrival, which at first they could be scarcely induced to credit, than Sir John Cope was sent with a small body of forces to oppose his progress.

By this time the young adventurer had arrived at Perth, where the unnecessary ceremony was performed of proclaiming his father king of Great Britain. Descending from the mountains, his forces

seemed to gather as they went forward; and, advancing to Edinburgh, they entered that city without opposition. There again the pageantry of proclamation was performed; and there he promised to dissolve the union, which was considered as one of the grievances of the country. However, the castle of that city still held out, and he was unprovided with cannon to besiege it.

In the mean time, Sir John Cope, who had pursued the rebels through the Highlands, but had declined meeting them in their descent, being now reinforced by two regiments of dragoons, resolved to march towards Edinburgh, and give the enemy battle. The young adventurer, whose forces were rather superior, though undisciplined, attacked him near Preston-Pans, a few miles from the capital, and soon put him and his troops to flight. This victory, by which the king lost five hundred men, gave the rebels great influence; and had the Pretender taken advantage of the general consternation, and marched directly for England, the consequence might have been fatal to freedom. But he was amused by the promise of succours which never came; and thus induced to remain in Edinburgh, to enjoy the triumphs of a trifling victory, and to be treated as a monarch. By this time his train was composed of the Earl of Kilmarnock, a man of desperate fortune, who had lately become discontented with the court for withdrawing a pension that had been granted to him; Lord Balmerino, who had been an officer in the English service, but gave up his commission in order to join the rebels; the Lords Cromartie, Elcho, Ogilvie, Pitsligo, and the eldest son of Lord Lovat, who came in with their vassals, and increased his

army. Lord Lovat himself was an enthusiast in the cause; but, being without principles, he was unwilling to act openly, afraid of incurring the resentment of the ministry, whom he still dreaded. Never was there a man of such unaccountable ambition, or who ever more actively rendered himself hateful and suspected by all. He was at first outlawed for ravishing the Duke of Argyle's niece; he then offered his service to the Old Pretender in France, and it was accepted; he next betrayed, to Queen Anne, the forces which were sent to his assistance. He a second time invited the Pretender over in the reign of George the First; and being put in possession, by the Chevalier, of the castle of Stirling, he did not scruple to deliver it up to the enemy. This man, true to neither party, had now, in secret, sent aid to the young chevalier; while, in his conversation, he affected to declaim against his attempt.

While the young Pretender was thus trifling away his time at Edinburgh, (for, in dangerous enterprises, delay is but defeat,) the ministry of Great Britain took every proper precaution to oppose him with success. Six thousand Dutch soldiers, who had come over to the assistance of the crown, were despatched northward, under the command of General Wade; but, as it was then said, these could lend no assistance, as they were prisoners of France upon parole, and under engagements not to oppose that power for the space of one year. However this be, the Duke of Cumberland soon after arrived from Flanders, and was followed by another detachment of dragoons and infantry, well disciplined, and inured to action. Besides these, volunteers offered in every part of the kingdom; and every county exerted a vigorous spirit of indig-

nation against the ambition, the religion, and the allies, of the young Pretender.

General Wade, being apprised of his progress, advanced across the country from the opposite shore ; but, receiving intelligence that the enemy was two days' march before him, he retired to his former station. The young Pretender, therefore, thus, unopposed, resolved to penetrate farther into the kingdom, having received assurances from France that a considerable body of troops would be landed on the southern coasts, to make a diversion in his favour. He was flattered also with the hopes of being joined by a considerable number of malcontents as he passed forward, and that his army would increase on the march. Accordingly, leaving a small garrison in Carlisle, which he should rather have left defenceless, he advanced to Penrith, marching in a Highland dress, and continuing his irruption till he came to Manchester, where he established his headquarters.

He was there joined by about two hundred English, who were formed into a regiment under the command of Colonel Townley. Thence he pursued his march to Derby, intending to go by the way of Chester into Wales, where he hoped to be joined by a great number of followers ; but the factions among his own chiefs prevented his proceeding to that part of the kingdom.

He had by this time advanced within a hundred and twenty miles of the capital, which was filled with perplexity and consternation. Had he proceeded in his career with that expedition which he had hitherto used, he might have made himself master of the metropolis, where he would certainly have been joined

by a considerable number of his well-wishers, who waited impatiently for his approach.

In the mean time, the king resolved to take the field in person. The volunteers of the city were incorporated into a regiment; the practitioners of the law agreed to take the field with the judges at their head; and even the managers of the theatres offered to raise a body of their dependents for the service of their country. These associations were at once a proof of the people's fears and their loyalty; while those concerned in the money-corporations were overwhelmed with dejection. But they found safety from the discontents which now began to prevail in the Pretender's army. In fact, he was but the nominal leader of his forces; as his generals, the chiefs of the Highland clans, were, from their education, ignorant, and averse to subordination. They had from the beginning embraced an opposite system of operation, and contended with each other for pre-eminence; but they seemed now unanimous in returning to their own country.

The rebels accordingly effected their retreat to Carlisle without any loss, and crossed the rivers Eden and Solway into Scotland. In these marches, however, they preserved all the rules of war: they abstained in a great measure from plunder; they levied contributions on the towns as they passed along; and with unaccountable precaution left a garrison in Carlisle, which shortly after surrendered to the Duke of Cumberland at discretion, to the number of four hundred men.

The Pretender, having re-entered Scotland, proceeded to Glasgow, from which city he exacted contributions. He then advanced to Stirling, where he

was joined by Lord Lewis Gordon, at the head of some forces which had been assembled in his absence. Other clans, to the number of two thousand, came in likewise; and from some supplies of money which he received from Spain, and from some skirmishes in which he was successful against the royalists, his affairs began to wear a more promising aspect. Being joined by Lord John Drummond, he invested the castle of Stirling, commanded by General Blakeney; but the rebel forces being unused to sieges, consumed much time to no purpose. It was during this attempt, that General Hawley, who commanded a considerable body of forces near Edinburgh, undertook to raise the siege, and advanced towards the rebel army as far as Falkirk. After two days spent in mutually examining each other's strength, the rebels, being ardent to engage, were led on in full spirits to attack the king's army. The Pretender, who was in the front line, gave the signal to engage; and the first fire put Hawley's forces into confusion. The horse retreated with precipitation, and fell upon their own infantry: while the rebels following their blow, the greatest part of the royal army fled with the utmost precipitation. They retired in confusion to Edinburgh, leaving the conquerors in possession of their tents, their artillery, and the field of battle.

Thus far the affairs of the rebel army seemed not unprosperous; but here was an end of all their triumphs. The Duke of Cumberland, at that time the favourite of the English army, had been recalled from Flanders, and put himself at the head of the troops at Edinburgh, which consisted of about fourteen thousand men. With these he advanced to Aberdeen, where he was joined by several of the Scotch nobility,

attached to the house of Hanover; and, having revived the drooping spirits of his army, he resolved to find out the enemy, who retreated at his approach. After having refreshed his troops at Aberdeen for some time, he renewed his march, and in twelve days he came upon the banks of the deep and rapid river Spey. This was the place where the rebels might have disputed his passage; but they lost every advantage in quarrelling with each other. They seemed now totally devoid of all counsel and subordination, without conduct, and without unanimity. After a variety of contests among themselves, they resolved to await their pursuers upon the plains of Culloden, a place about nine miles distant from Inverness, embosomed in hills, except on that side which was open to the sea. There they drew up in order of battle, to the number of eight thousand men, in three divisions, supplied with some pieces of artillery, ill manned and served.

The battle began about one o'clock in the afternoon; the cannon of the king's army did dreadful execution among the rebels, while their artillery proved totally unserviceable. One of the great errors in all the Pretender's warlike measures, was his subjecting wild and undisciplined troops to the forms of artful war, and thus repressing their native ardour, from which alone he could hope for success. After they had been kept in their ranks, and withstood the English fire for some time, they at length became impatient for closer engagement; and about five hundred of them made an irruption upon the left wing of the enemy with their accustomed ferocity. The first line being disordered by this onset, two battalions advanced to support it, and galled the

enemy with a terrible and close discharge. At the same time, the dragoons under Hawley, and the Argyleshire militia, pulling down a park wall that guarded the flank of the enemy, and which they had but feebly defended, fell in among them, sword in hand, with great slaughter. In less than thirty minutes they were totally routed, and the field covered with their wounded and slain, to the number of above three thousand men. The French troops on the left did not fire a shot, but stood inactive during the engagement, and afterwards surrendered themselves prisoners of war. An entire body of the clans marched off the field in order, while the rest were routed with great slaughter, and their leaders obliged with reluctance to retire. Civil war is in itself terrible, but more so when heightened by unnecessary cruelty. How guilty soever an enemy may be, it is the duty of a brave soldier to remember that he has only to fight an opposer, and not a suppliant. The victory was in every respect decisive, and humanity to the conquered would have rendered it glorious. But little mercy was shewn here; the conquerors were seen to refuse quarter to the wounded, the unarmed, and the defenceless: some were slain who were only excited by curiosity to become spectators of the combat, and soldiers were seen to anticipate the base employment of the executioner. The duke, immediately after the action, ordered six-and-thirty deserters to be executed; the conquerors spread terror wherever they came; and, after a short space, the whole country round was one dreadful scene of plunder, slaughter, and desolation; justice was forgotten, and vengeance assumed the name.

In this manner were blasted all the hopes and all

the ambition of the young adventurer; one short hour deprived him of imaginary thrones and sceptres, and reduced him from a nominal king to a distressed forlorn outcast, shunned by all mankind, except such as sought his destruction. To the good and the brave, subsequent distress often atones for former guilt; and while reason would speak for punishment, our hearts plead for mercy. Immediately after the engagement, he fled with a captain of Fitzjames's cavalry; and when their horses were fatigued, they alighted, and separately sought for safety. He for some days wandered in this country, (naturally wild, but now rendered more formidable by war,) a wretched spectator of all those horrors which were the result of his ill-guided ambition.

During this reign England was engaged in a war with France, to support the rights of the Queen of Hungary. War was also declared against Spain to defend the commerce of this country; the Spaniards having in many instances insulted the British flag and mal-treated the English merchants. A treaty of peace was concluded between the contending parties at Aix-la-Chapelle; but the war with France was shortly afterwards renewed, in consequence of cabinet disputes respecting the settlement of Nova Scotia. The efforts of England at this period, were amazing; her military operations in India, North America, and Germany were brilliant and extensive: but her naval achievements exceeded every other, gaining her the entire sovereignty of the ocean, and surpassing whatever had been read of in history.

On the twenty-fifth of October, the king, without having complained of any previous disorder, was found, by his domestics, expiring in his chamber.

He had risen at his usual hour, and observed to his attendants, that as the weather was fine, he would take a walk into the gardens of Kensington, where he then resided. In a few minutes after his return, being left alone, he was heard to fall down upon the floor. The noise of this bringing his attendants into the room, they lifted him into bed, where he desired, with a faint voice, that the Princess Amelia might be sent for; but before she could reach the apartment, he expired. An attempt was made to bleed him, but without effect; and afterwards, the surgeons, upon opening him, discovered that the right ventricle of the heart was actually ruptured, and that a great quantity of blood was discharged through the aperture.

George the second died in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and the thirty-fourth of his reign, lamented by his subjects, and in the midst of victory. If any monarch was happy in the peculiar mode of his death, and the precise time of its arrival, it was he. The universal enthusiasm of the people for conquest was now beginning to subside, and sober reason to take her turn in the administration of affairs. The factions which had been nursing during his long reign, had not yet come to maturity, but threatened with all their virulence to afflict his successor. He was himself of no shining abilities; and while he was permitted to guide and assist his German dominions, he intrusted the care of Britain to his ministers at home.

“On whatever side,” says his panegyrist, “we look upon his character, we shall find ample matter for just and unsuspected praise. None of his predecessors on the throne of England lived to so great an age, or enjoyed longer felicity. His subjects were

still improving under him in commerce and arts; and his own economy set a prudent example to the nation, which, however, they did not follow. He was in his temper sudden and violent; but this, though it influenced his conduct, made no change in his behaviour, which was generally guided by reason. He was plain and direct in his intentions, true to his word, steady in his favour and protection to his servants, not parting even with his ministers till compelled to it by the violence of faction. In short, through the whole of his life he appeared rather to live for the cultivation of useful virtues than splendid ones; and, satisfied with being good, left to others their unenvied greatness."

Such is the picture given by his friends; but there are others who reverse the medal. "As to the extent of his understanding, or the splendour of his virtue, we rather wish for opportunities of praise, than undertake the task ourselves. His public character was marked with a predilection for his native country; and to that he sacrificed all other considerations. He was not only unlearned himself, but he despised learning in others; and though genius might have flourished in his reign, yet he neither promoted it by his influence nor example. His frugality bordered upon avarice; and he hoarded not for his subjects, but for himself. He was remarkable for no one great virtue, and was known to practise several of the meaner vices." Which of these two characters is true, or whether they may not in part be both so, it is difficult to decide. If his favourers are numerous, so are those who oppose them:—let posterity therefore decide the contest.

GEORGE III. GRANDSON OF GEORGE II.

The third George—merely our father and friend.

THE *Act of Settlement* prohibiting the sovereigns of this country, from forming matrimonial connexions with Catholic families, George the third was compelled to select a consort from the house of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, a petty principality in the north of Germany. The royal nuptials were celebrated on the eighth of September 1761; and the ceremony of coronation took place on the twenty-second of the same month.

In the opening of this reign, war was declared against Spain, for not acting up to her professions of neutrality towards this country and France. Mr. Pitt had long entertained suspicions of the Spanish court, but his temporary resignation of office, occasioned by the secret influence of the Earl of Bute, delayed the precautionary measures which he had intended to adopt. The war with France and Spain was, notwithstanding, carried on with vigour and success, by the new administration, with Bute at their head. Amongst other advantages obtained over the Spaniards, two rich treasure ships were captured by British cruisers, and were found to contain property amounting to two millions sterling. At the same time that the waggons were conveying these rich spoils to the Tower, on passing the front of the palace, the guns in the park announced the birth of an heir to the English throne, and this coincidence of events caused an enthusiastic joy throughout the nation.

The desire of all parties, however, soon tended towards peace. France and Spain found themselves on the brink of ruin; and England herself discovered that a protracted warfare would rather exhaust her resources, than issue in any permanent good. A general peace was therefore concluded, the stipulations of which were favourable to the English nation; yet so completely were the people intoxicated with repeated victories, that the announcement of the treaty was regarded with much discontent.

Another change of ministry took place, in consequence of the resignation of the Earl of Bute, to whom succeeded Mr. George Grenville. This alteration in the cabinet broke up the country into several factions, and the press was unsparingly used by the several partizans in virulent attacks on each other. The person who obtained most notoriety on this occasion was Mr. Wilkes, member for Aylesbury, who, in No. 45 of the North Briton paper, issued a libel containing not only animadversions on the government, but a gross attack on the king himself. This bold proceeding was instantly met by legal inquiry; and though the Court of Common Pleas acquitted Mr. Wilkes, on the ground that writing a libel was no breach of parliamentary privilege, the house of Commons unanimously voted No. 45 of the North Briton "a false, scandalous and seditious libel." Mr. Wilkes shortly after was wounded in a duel, and on his recovery he retired to France. While absent from this country he was deprived of his seat in the commons' house, and declared an outlaw for not appearing to take his trial.

A train of unfortunate circumstances now began to create an ill feeling between England and her

American colonies. It was thought just that the colonies, whose interests had not been overlooked in the late treaty of peace, should bear a proportion of the vast expenditure incurred during the war. The administration attempted to impose a stamp duty on all mercantile transactions in the colonies; and a tax on cider was at the same time fixed in England; both these measures excited the indignation of the people to whom they applied, and their unpopularity obliged the ministers to resign. A fresh cabinet was formed by the Marquis of Rockingham, which instantly repealed the obnoxious duties, and thus for a time restored public tranquillity. This new ministry, however, finding itself weakened by the death of the Duke of Cumberland, gave place to another headed by Mr. Pitt, who was now created Earl of Chatham. The taxation of America was again proposed, and heavy duties were imposed on all glass, paper, painters' colours, and tea imported into the British colonies. The Americans resisted these imposts by petitions and remonstrances; and fresh exactions drew from them a peremptory refusal of obedience to the mother country.

On the dissolution of parliament, Mr. Wilkes returned from exile, and was elected, by an overwhelming majority, representative for Middlesex. Having surrendered himself to the King's Bench, the sentence of outlawry was reversed; but a fine of a thousand pounds was imposed on him, and he was committed to prison for the term of twenty-two months. During this time the disaffection in the colonies was manifesting itself more openly; Ireland began to exhibit symptoms of disquiet; and, in India, the English arms were called to oppose a powerful enemy, in the

person of Hyder Ally, who had raised himself from the rank of a common sepoy to that of a powerful and despotic sovereign.

It was expected, on the assembling of parliament, that Mr. Wilkes would have been liberated, and allowed to take his seat as member for Middlesex. Multitudes assembled in St. George's Fields, for the purpose of conducting him to the house. The magistracy, finding themselves unequal to quell the tumult, the military were ordered out, when one man was killed and a great number severely wounded. The public indignation was the more roused against this transaction, from the circumstance of a Scotch regiment having been employed in the affair: verdicts of wilful murder were returned against the military, and several of the soldiers were pronounced by the juries who tried them guilty of deliberate slaughter. Government, however, refused to participate in the popular feeling: pardons were granted to the delinquents, and even a letter of thanks written to the justices and others for their spirited conduct. Mr. Wilkes animadverted with great severity on the conduct of the ministers; and was, in consequence, expelled the house. Being again and again re-elected by the freeholders of Middlesex, the government wrested to themselves the right of choosing a representative, and declared the candidate with the smaller number of votes duly elected. Nothing could show more strongly than this arbitrary act, by how slender a thread the boasted freedom of an Englishman is secured, and how powerless is the voice of a nation when it suits the purposes of a government to refuse a recognition of its constitutional rights.

The Earl of Chatham, in consequence of severe

and continued indisposition, resigned office; and a new ministry was formed by Lord North. The continental sovereigns began to view with contempt a country whose councils were distracted by such frequent change; and the disputes with the colonies appeared daily to increase beyond the hope of accommodation. The first occasion on which the Americans had recourse to arms, arose from a violent act of aggression towards them, for resisting which a body of military were called out, and compelled to fire on the people. This transaction brought matters nearer to a crisis: the Americans strongly remonstrated against the arbitrary and unjust measures taken against them; and when all access to a fair and impartial hearing seemed denied them, an assembly of delegates from the different states, under the name of a Congress, met at Philadelphia, and framed a petition to the mother country to recognise their rights and annul the oppressive enactments. Nothing can scarcely be conceived more solemn than the joint petition of the colonies praying for redress of grievance, and soliciting a repeal of those arbitrary imposts, to which they could not submit, without first resigning all their cherished liberties and constitutional rights.

The opportunity presented to the ministry, for retracing the injudicious steps they had taken, afforded by the presentation of this petition, was neglected, and the colonies were consequently thrown into a state of agitation which could be controlled by nothing less than war. The first engagement of any consequence between the Americans and the British soldiery, took place near Boston, when the former, though they suffered defeat, evinced their determi-

nation to resist the arbitrary rule of the mother country. Blood having been thus drawn, the colonies rose *en masse*, and the king's stores were seized in all directions for the use of the insurgent army. The fortress of Ticonderago was surprised and taken, and the Americans were thus put in possession of one hundred pieces of cannon and a considerable store of ammunition. General Gage, commander of the garrison, having been reinforced by supplies of men from Great Britain, resolved to commence active operations against the insurgents, but first caused proclamation of pardon to be made to all who would lay down their arms. This artifice failed of its intended effect; and both sides now prepared for a struggle which should decide with what success freedom may contend with tyranny.

At Bunker's Hill the British troops obtained a dear bought victory. Their only claim to superiority in this contest was the retreat of the provincials, who, however, suffered considerably less than their victors. A great slaughter of the British officers took place in this battle, and the reason assigned for this unusual conduct of the Americans is, that the latter were well aware how averse the lower and middling classes in this country were to the war, and that its chief supporters lay amongst the nobility and gentry, from which grades the officers of the army were of course derived. Another motive perhaps induced them to violate the common usages of war: the British forces were far removed from the mother country; and the colonists probably thought, and with much justice, that if they could accomplish the destruction of the officers, total insubordination, and consequent imbecility of purpose, would prevail throughout the king's forces.

The Americans, to their lasting honour be it recorded, were still disposed to treat with the mother country, and not to prolong a warfare which might be said to place kinsmen and brothers in battle array against each other. They did not, however, neglect to make due provision for maintaining the struggle, if petitions and remonstrances should prove of no avail. Their sentiments happily concurred in the election of George Washington to the chief command of their forces; and the wisdom of their choice was evidenced in the results that followed.

The first achievement by General Washington was the compelling the British garrison to surrender the town of Boston; and on entering it, he was hailed by the citizens as their deliverer and the father of their liberties. All hopes of accommodation were now gone; the British minister hired a strong body of German mercenaries for the reduction of the colonies; and the Americans retorted by publishing their famous declaration of independence.

Howe, the British general, after being forced to evacuate Boston, retired to Halifax, where he was joined by his brother, with a considerable fleet; he then again began on the offensive, and obtained a few petty triumphs, sufficient to inspire a vain confidence in the ministry at home. Washington, however, by a series of skilful manœuvres, soon turned the tide of success in favour of the insurgents.

Washington was sensible of the disadvantages under which his undisciplined forces must act, when brought to a regular engagement with the enemy; he therefore avoided, as long as he could, bringing his army formally into the field. Being at length compelled to hazard a battle, he met the British forces near the Brandywine river, and sustained a defeat;

and in an attempt to retrieve his losses, he again lost the battle. The successes of the Americans in the northern parts, however, more than compensated for their failures in the south. The tactics of the British generals were of the worst description, or the ministry shackled them with injudicious instructions; be this as it might, their projects were entirely defeated, and their troops obliged to surrender, or hastily retreat before the forces of Washington.

The event of the American war had been predicted long before the actual issue could be known; indeed, from the very commencement of this ill-advised undertaking, the consequences had been foretold. France acknowledged the independence of the States, and entered into a treaty with them. The British senate would now have retraced its steps: it offered every item for which the colonists had petitioned and remonstrated; and some members of the cabinet even expressed an opinion that it was desirable to acknowledge the independence of America, rather than prolong the war. It was during this debate that the venerable Earl of Chatham visited the house, though sinking with debility and the weight of years, to enter his last protest against a measure so disgraceful as the deliberate surrender of a part of the empire. The excitement of the occasion exhausted his remaining strength; he fell on the floor of the house whilst speaking, and shortly after expired at his country seat, whither he had been removed.

Commissioners were sent to the colonies to propose terms, but the Americans would listen to nothing short of the acknowledgment of their independence; and the English delegates, having made an unsuccessful attempt to bribe the deputies of the States, they

were dismissed with well-merited contempt and indignation.

The Americans having obtained the powerful assistance of France, they indulged a hope that the issue to which they looked forward would be speedily accomplished. Great, however, was their disappointment to find the tide of success turning against them, and the British arms universally triumphant. The States were compelled to give ground in all directions, and not only themselves but their allies, the French, suffered several signal defeats. England was much annoyed at this time by the operations of the French in the West Indies; and the united fleets of France and Spain spread terror along our coasts. Ireland also showed symptoms of disquiet, and the narrow views and policy of the English ministry had well nigh produced a decisive revolution in that country. Holland added her assistance to the enemies of England, and thus was the latter without a single ally, involved in warfare with four distinct powers. A considerable degree of energy was evinced by the nation in this trying moment: her generals and admirals exerted themselves manfully to preserve the national glory untarnished; and many splendid achievements were performed both by sea and land.

The repeal of several of the penal laws against the Roman Catholics was effected by parliament; and this liberal measure caused much excitement amongst the bigots in religious matters, who were prime movers in a series of disgraceful tumults that followed. A vast multitude assembled in St. George's Fields to petition parliament to rescind the laws made in favour of the Catholics; and, after proposing a number of violent resolutions, they proceeded in large bodies to

the house of commons, and insulted the members as they entered. Lord George Gordon, a weak and visionary fanatic, made a violent harangue to the people: in consequence of which the enraged mob proceeded to lawless extremities, burning the prisons of Newgate, the King's Bench and the Fleet, and even threatening the Bank. The military were called out, as a last resource; but the rioters could not be dispersed until two hundred and twenty of their number had been killed or mortally wounded.

The independence of America was now, notwithstanding the unpromising opening of the campaign, about to be achieved. The difficulties in which he had been placed, instead of discouraging General Washington, urged him to yet greater exertions: and by a series of bold and decisive operations, he at length succeeded in compelling the British forces to lay down their arms. The American war was now, therefore, virtually at an end. Negotiations for peace were set on foot, and all the belligerent parties seemed disposed towards a cessation of hostilities.

An attempt was made on the life of the king by a maniac, named Margaret Nicholson: her insanity being clearly proved, she was sent to Bethlehem hospital, to be at once guarded and protected. The memorable impeachment of Warren Hastings, late Governor-general of India, occurred at this time, and issued in a trial of seven years' duration, during which much rancour of heart was shewn by those who conducted the prosecution, at the head of whom were Mr. Burke and Mr. Fox.

The nation was plunged into much sorrow, by the indisposition of the king. He was visited with mental imbecility, which entirely incapacitated him for dis-

charging the duties of government. Mr. Fox advocated regency, in the person of the Prince of Wales; and Mr. Pitt as strenuously opposed the measure. After much debate, it was agreed that the heir apparent should be created Regent of the kingdom during the monarch's indisposition, subject to certain restrictions. The parliament of Ireland wished to relieve the regent from all restrictions; and fatal consequences might have resulted from this difference of opinion, had not the king's restoration to health put a period to the discussions. His majesty's convalescence was hailed with rapture throughout the kingdom; and the public joy on this occasion is thus alluded to by the Laureat;

"Meek Poverty her scanty cottage grac'd
And threw her gleam across the lonely waste:
The exulting isle in one wide triumph strove,
One social sacrifice of reverential love.

While England was enjoying profound tranquillity, events were taking place in France, which soon involved us in a war with that country.

The French Revolution was undoubtedly hastened by the American war. The soldiery of France, whilst fighting in the cause of freedom, could not fail to imbibe principles of liberty, and notions of general equality, little in unison with the arbitrary measures of a despotic court. Independent, however, of this exciting cause, all things had been tending to the overthrow of monarchy in France for some years preceding. The nobles were tyrannical and oppressive; the clergy were sunk deeply in licentiousness; and the profligacy and prodigality of the court were

extreme. The private virtues of the sovereign were the only redeeming quality in this accumulation of evil; and they were found insufficient to control the tide of popular indignation.

The revolution commenced in a determination that the three orders of the state, the clergy, the nobles, and the commons, should meet in one body, under the name of the national assembly. This legislative body immediately set to work to abolish all the ancient institutions of the country. The court and the nobility, who discovered that in this mixed assembly the popular party ruled at pleasure, so strongly expressed their disgust of the new enactments, that many of the court party were glad to escape the indignation they had excited by voluntary exile. The Parisian mob made an attack upon the Bastile, the state-prison of France, and quickly reduced it to ruins. They next advanced to Versailles, and brought thence the king and royal family captives to the capital.

These events in France, were anxiously watched by two opposite parties in England; one of whom regarded them as the triumphs of liberty, the other as the overthrow of legitimate authority and wholesome rule. Amongst the populace, no inconsiderable number was found who opposed themselves to the politics of France; and a dread of their resentment prevented the violent party from indulging in public manifestations of joy, in commemoration of the capture of the Bastile.

The chief continental powers entered into a treaty, to check the progress of anarchy in France; but an injudicious policy rendered their interference more disastrous to the French court and nobility, than the

previous internal disquietude of the nation. The palace of Louis was stormed, his guards massacred, himself and family confined as close prisoners, and the kingly office finally abolished. Before the continental and neighbouring nations had recovered from their surprise at this bold and lawless measure, they were struck with consternation by certain intelligence that the French king had been subjected to the mockery of a trial and beheaded.

The English arms were directed, in the East Indies, against Tippoo Saib, son of Hyder Ally; and Lord Cornwallis succeeded in reducing him to sue for peace, on terms highly advantageous to this country.

The national convention declared war against England and Holland; and the Duke of York was appointed to command the allied forces against France. After a series of disasters, however, the allies were totally defeated, at the end of the second campaign, by the republicans. The siege of Toulon is memorable for first bringing into notice Napoleon Buonaparte. By his skill and intrepidity, the English were obliged to evacuate the town.

Our navy continued to support the honour of England, and the victories of Howe served in some measure to compensate for the ill success of the army. Several of the continental sovereigns were inclined to make peace with the French republic, even Holland submitted to be a province of France, and England was thus left with scarcely an ally remaining. Symptoms of discontent began to prevail in the country on account of heavy taxation and impeded commerce; and an attack was even made on the king's carriage, as his majesty passed to the House of Lords. Much dissatisfaction was also caused by the prodigality of

the Prince of Wales. The prince consented to marry his cousin, the Princess Caroline of Brunswick, in order to procure the payment of his debts. After the birth of a daughter, the royal pair separated.

The war with France was still prosecuted with various success. At the battle of the Nile the French fleet suffered a signal defeat by Admiral Lord Nelson. In the battle of Acre also, Buonaparte was overcome by Sir Sydney Smith. He now secretly left Egypt, and, returning to France, procured himself to be elected First Consul. His first measure, after this elevation, was an attempt to effect amicable arrangements with England. The latter had, however, entered into a confederacy with other states against him, and his overtures were rejected.

Tippoo Saib, who had again attempted to remove the English yoke from his shoulders, was for ever overthrown; his capital being taken by storm, himself slain, and his vast treasures distributed amongst the victors. Austria was completely reduced by Buonaparte, and the whole country desolated. The legislative union between England and Ireland was effected, and took effect from the first of January, 1801.

After sustaining several defeats in Egypt, and making an abortive attempt to invade England, Buonaparte once more expressed a wish for peace; and as a cessation of hostilities was the general desire of this country also, a treaty was concluded at Amiens.

Fresh jealousies soon began to grow between the two countries; and the English ambassador having been treated with much indignity, hastily withdrew from France. Napoleon now recommenced the war with great vigour, and renewed his threat of invading England; he was, however, too shrewd an observer,

to undertake a project that promised little likelihood of success. He now rose to the highest pinnacle of ambition, being solemnly crowned Emperor of France, and King of Italy.

The naval achievements of England at this time were of the most splendid description. The engagement off Trafalgar served to humble the power of France; but the victory was dearly purchased by the death of Admiral Lord Nelson, who was shot during the action, and survived only a sufficient time to know that victory had not deserted him. The successes of France by land were, notwithstanding, of the most decided character. Austria was entirely reduced; Prussia, aided by Russia, failed in its attempts against the empire; and by the Treaty of Tilsit, Buonaparte found himself relieved of enemies who had in some measure restrained his efforts against England. He succeeded in crushing for a time the commerce of this country, by closing all the continental ports against her. His next undertaking was to seize upon Portugal and the crown of Spain, the latter of which he transferred to his brother Joseph. The Spaniards rose as one man, to maintain the independence of their country, and the rights of their legitimate sovereign. They sent deputies to the English, who received them with open arms, and promised to co-operate with them. An army was sent under the command of Sir Arthur Wellesley to assist, in the first place, in the liberation of Portugal. The Convention of Cintra was shortly concluded for the evacuation of this country.

Sir John Moore had been appointed to the command of the army in Spain; but his measures were entirely frustrated by the indolence and vain boasting of the

Spaniards. He found the forces, with whom he was to co-operate, a tumultuous and undisciplined rabble; and the stores and magazines were so ill provided, that he anticipated nothing less than failure. Napoleon arrived to take command of the French army at this unfortunate moment, and the activity of his movements left the British general no alternative but retreat. In this trying emergency, Sir John Moore did all that military skill and prudence could effect. On reaching Corunna, however, the enemy had advanced so close upon him, that nothing remained but to risk the chances of a battle. A decisive victory was obtained; but it was purchased by the life of this heroic general.

The English arms were now becoming resistless in Spain, through the skill and gallantry of Sir Arthur Wellesley. A brilliant victory was obtained at Talavera, for which Sir Arthur was elevated to the peerage, by the title of Viscount Wellington.

Napoleon had despatched Massena, with an overwhelming power, to clear the Spanish peninsula of the English forces. Lord Wellington retired before him as far as Busaco, when a battle was fought between the armies, ending in a severe defeat of the French.

The mental indisposition of his majesty returned with increased strength, on occasion of the death of the Princess Amelia; and the government of the country was intrusted to the Prince of Wales, who acted as regent through the remainder of this reign. Mr. Perceval, the premier, was shot by one Bellingham, as he was entering the house of commons; and Lord Liverpool succeeded to the situation of first lord of the treasury.

After defeating the French forces at Ciudad Rodrigo, Wellington determined on driving the enemy from Madrid; and this enterprise having succeeded, the English were received with much enthusiasm into the Spanish capital. The indecisive conduct of the Spaniards obliged Wellington to remove to the North of Spain; and an attack on Burgos, proving a failure, he deemed it prudent to retire to the frontiers of Portugal. Napoleon, meanwhile, had engaged in a war with Russia. His army advanced to Moscow, the ancient capital of the kingdom; but at this juncture, when the destruction of the empire was daily expected, an act of bold policy averted the threatened danger. The Russians set fire to their capital, which, being built for the most part of wood, was soon burnt to the ground; and a severe winter having just set in, the French army was exposed to all the horrors of cold and famine. The loss sustained at Moscow probably laid the foundation of Napoleon's ruin.

Disputes arose between Great Britain and the United States. The Americans made an unsuccessful attempt on Canada; but, by sea, obtained some considerable triumphs.

The Spanish authorities now began to perceive that no effectual stop could be put to the progress of the French army, unless the command of their forces was given to Lord Wellington. Being thus invested with the entire control of the allied armies, the British general commenced a series of splendid operations against the enemy, and obtained a decisive victory at Vittoria. The war was carried on in the south-east of Spain with a sad want of energy by Sir John Murray; but Wellington repaired all the evils and losses of this inefficient commander. The Duke

d'Angoulême having arrived at the camp of Wellington, the latter was welcomed into Bourdeaux by the inhabitants; and news arriving shortly after that Napoleon had abdicated the throne, the war was at an end. On the sixth of April, 1814, Napoleon formally resigned the imperial dignity; and Louis XVIII. shortly returned from exile to ascend the throne of his family. Napoleon received the independent sovereignty of Elba, in lieu of all he had given up; and it is difficult to decide which is most apparent—the despicable humility that could accept such an exchange for universal rule, or the insolent meanness that could offer it.

Peace was hailed with much satisfaction throughout England, and great rejoicings took place on the occasion. All the allied sovereigns visited this country, and, after a short stay, returned to their respective kingdoms, much gratified with the reception that had been given them. The quarrel with America was soon after amicably adjusted; and England entertained hopes of permanent repose.

Within a year after his abdication, Napoleon, to the astonishment of all Europe, returned from Elba, placed himself at the head of the French army, which was devotedly attached to him, and prepared for a determined resistance against the allies. The battle of Waterloo followed soon after, (June 18, 1815); and terminated in the total overthrow of the emperor. After a fruitless attempt to escape to America, Napoleon surrendered himself to Captain Maitland, of the *Bellerophon*. The allies, more consulting their own safety, than the dignity of their prisoner, directed him to be confined in the island of St. Helena. Here he was subjected to all the indignities which petty

malice and vulgar authority could inflict; and at length died on the 5th of May, 1821, leaving to future times an imperishable name.

The first effects of the peace were by no means favourable to England. She experienced a re-action in her commerce: the channels of trade were in a good degree closed, the demand for manufactures fell away, and the value of agricultural produce was greatly reduced. To these evils were added, the increase made to the national debt by the heavy expenditure of the late war.

The Princess Charlotte of Wales entered into marriage with Leopold, Prince of Saxe Cobourg. Much joy was manifested in the hope that this union would produce a successor to the English throne. The event, however, proved otherwise: the princess gave birth to a still-born child, and expired within a few hours afterwards. Never, perhaps, did a whole nation unite in demonstrations of grief so sincere as on this occasion. This mournful event rendered it necessary that the remaining branches of the royal family should contract alliances, to preserve the kingdom from the disorder which might attend a failure of issue to succeed upon the throne. The Dukes of Cambridge, Kent, and Clarence, were united to members of the German principalities. Shortly after, Queen Charlotte, consort of his majesty, expired at Kew, in the seventy-fifth year of her age.

The public mind was much excited, and great outrage occasioned by wild and indefinite projects for "Reform." Demagogues were not wanting on this occasion to inflame the minds of the populace, and increase the public dissatisfaction which had arisen from the first consequences of the peace. A lament-

able occurrence took place at Manchester, during a meeting convened by Hunt and his associates. The military being called in to assist the civil power, in securing the ringleaders of the factious multitude, they were compelled to charge upon the people; but whether the slaughter which took place was unavoidable or not, it is difficult to decide.

The Duke of Kent died on the 23d of January, 1820, leaving an only daughter, the Princess Victoria; and on the 29th of the same month, George III. died at Windsor, at the age of eighty-one, and in the sixtieth year of his reign. He had been politically dead for some years; his demise therefore excited little stir in the nation, beyond reverence and regret for one, who, in the social duties of life, had no superior.

GEORGE IV. SON OF GEORGE III.

The fourth George-miatod, whose reign hath an end.

GEORGE the Fourth had been virtually at the head of affairs for so long a time, that his accession to the throne was comparatively unimportant to the kingdom. The first occurrence worth mention in this reign, is the Cato-street conspiracy. A number of obscure individuals, with one Arthur Thistlewood at their head, had planned to assassinate his majesty's ministers, at a dinner intended to be given by Lord Harrowby. Information of their designs having reached government, a strong body of police was despatched to their place of rendezvous, where, after an obstinate struggle, in which a police officer, named Smithers, was killed, they were all secured. Being brought to trial, Thistlewood and four others were executed, some transported, and the rest suffered to escape.

Considerable agitation prevailed throughout the kingdom, in consequence of the return of the Princess of Wales to this country. Since the separation from her husband, her conduct had been closely watched by spies, and now that she had returned to England to claim participation in hereditary honours, the mass of evidence compiled against her was made the pretext for introducing "a bill of pains and penalties" into the house of lords. The measure, however, proved so unpopular, that the ministry gladly abandoned it; and the queen's friends hailed this circumstance as a complete acquittal.

Arrangements were made for the king's coronation, and some commotion was expected to ensue from the rejection of the queen's claim to participate in the ceremony. No interruption, however, took place; beyond a slight tumult occasioned by the queen's presenting herself for admission to the abbey, and being refused. The chagrin arising from this last circumstance, it is supposed, produced a fatal effect on the queen's health, as her death followed in a very short time after. Some disturbance and blood-shed attended her funeral, from the determination of the populace that the procession should pass through the city, and the attempts of the escort to prevent it.

After his coronation, the king visited Dublin, and was, as may be supposed, received with loyalty, being the first English sovereign that had visited Ireland with other than hostile intentions. The king next paid a brief visit to Hanover; and shortly after proceeded to Edinburgh, where he was received with acclamations. The festivities attendant on this visit were, however, disturbed by the melancholy tidings of the Marquis of Londonderry having committed

suicide. To this minister succeeded Mr. Canning, an able statesman, opportunely placed at the head of affairs.

The sovereigns of Europe entered into a confederacy called the Holy Alliance, to check the progress of revolution; or, in other words, to terrify into submission any people who should dare to curl the lip of scorn at a tyrannical and despotic ruler. The constitutionalists of Spain were reduced: and the Greeks were viewed by these crowned arbitrators with secret aversion.

Attempts had been annually made, from the Union with Ireland, to rescind the restrictive enactments against Roman Catholics. Though frequently repulsed, the advocates of this measure were not to be silenced. A bill to control illegal assemblies in Ireland passed the legislature with little opposition, from an expectation that Catholic Emancipation would speedily follow; the hope, however, proved delusive; the bill being thrown out by the lords, principally through the exertions of the Duke of York.

In the year 1825, this country was visited with commercial troubles, to which the South Sea fraud alone can furnish a parallel. Joint-stock companies had increased to an unprecedented extent, and the wildest speculations were entered into with an eagerness bordering on insanity. The visionary prospects held out by these companies to their subscribers, soon melted into thin air; and the consequences of the reaction were terrible. A short-sighted avarice had led country bankers to invest their capital in mortgages and securities not available at a short notice, merely to obtain a higher rate of interest; and this insane proceeding added not a little to the general confusion.

Banking companies, in all directions, suspended payment, or were entirely broken up; commercial houses of the first respectability sunk, carrying down with them a host of smaller establishments. It required several years to restore confidence; and even to this day, the ruinous consequences of the "Panic" are not entirely overcome.

The year 1827, was rendered remarkable by the number of deaths which took place among the illustrious by birth or station. On the 5th of January, his royal highness the Duke of York died, deeply regretted by the army, to whose interests he had uniformly devoted his attention. On the 17th of February, the Earl of Liverpool was seized with a fit of apoplexy, which incapacitated him for political duties, and in the course of a few months terminated his life. Mr. Canning, his successor, was shortly after borne down by the fatigues of office, and died, on the 8th of August. An imbecile cabinet preceded the formation of the Wellington ministry, which promised to be of more service to the country than the one it had displaced.

The inhumanity which marked the warfare between the Turks and Greeks, led to an alliance between England, France, and Russia, to effect a pacification. The united fleets, under the command of Sir Edward Codrington, sailed directly into the harbour of Navarino, to intimidate the Turkish commander in the Morea. Some slight insult offered by the Turks, proved the signal for a general engagement, which terminated in the almost entire destruction of the Turkish fleet. Greece was relieved by this achievement; but the Turks still refused submission, and declared war against Russia. Ultimately, the sultan

was compelled to agree to terms of peace dictated by his opponents, almost at the gates of his capital.

The Test and Corporation Acts were repealed in 1828; and in the following year Catholic Emancipation followed, the measure being, to the surprise of the nation, recommended from the throne.

The death of the king was now daily expected; he had been for some time suffering under a tedious disease, whose fatal tendency was apparent. He died at Windsor, on the 25th of June, 1830, having reigned upwards of ten years.

WILLIAM IV. THIRD SON OF GEORGE III.

The fourth William-minted, whom Heaven defend.

THE accession of his present majesty to the throne of his ancestors, was regarded with pleasure by the nation; and the popularity of his manners has strengthened the attachment manifested by his subjects on his first coming to the crown.

The state of things in England, at this time, was fearfully contrasted by the affairs of France. Charles X. by the publication of three arbitrary ordinances, for dissolving the chamber of deputies, disfranchising the electors, and restricting the press, caused a revolution in his kingdom. After an obstinate contest, which lasted for three days, the Parisians made themselves masters of the capital, forced Charles to abdicate the throne, and transferred the crown to the Duke of Orleans.

The two states of Belgium and Holland, which had been united at the general pacification under one ruler, were distracted with petty jealousies and dis-

trusts; and the French revolution excited the Belgians to make a similar attempt for throwing off the Dutch yoke. In this they succeeded. The crown of the new kingdom was first offered to the second son of the king of France; and on his refusal to accept it, was conferred on Prince Leopold.

The Wellington administration had incurred much odium by their concessions to the Catholics; and the unqualified refusal of the duke to bring forward any measure of parliamentary reform, threw the nation into a state of ferment. The resignation of the ministry was probably hastened by the following ridiculous circumstance. His majesty had fixed a day on which he intended to honour the Lord Mayor and the civic authorities with his company at Guildhall; everything was prepared in readiness on a scale of suitable magnificence, when notice was sent the day before the intended visit, that his majesty postponed the entertainment *sine die*. It was thought that nothing less than the discovery of some fearful plot, could have caused this determination at so late a period; what then was the public feeling of indignation to learn, that the disappointment arose out of an intimation to the Duke of Wellington, that the mob *might* hiss him as he passed to the Guildhall!

The present ministry was formed under the direction of Earl Grey; and among the appointments none can excite more surprise than that of Mr. Brougham to the Lord Chancellor's seat. The principal legislative achievement that has been effected by this cabinet, is "the Reform Bill." On this measure it is scarcely prudent to offer an opinion. Posterity will determine whether the enactment is calculated to renovate the Constitution, and remove its corruptions,

or to furnish a precedent for future innovations, fraught with more mischief, and more dangerous.

We have now arrived at a point in the national history, beyond which it would be neither prudent nor profitable to pursue inquiry. In closing the volume, we have to record a memorable event which took place on the evening of October 16th, 1834. The two Houses of Parliament were burned to the ground; and many valuable records and documents for ever lost. With much difficulty, that unequalled work of art, Westminster Hall, was preserved from destruction. There will now be no difference of opinion respecting the necessity of an entire renovation of both houses.

We subjoin some particulars of the conflagration, gathered from the daily press.

“Shortly before seven o’clock last night, the inhabitants of Westminster, and of the districts on the opposite bank of the river, were thrown into the utmost confusion and alarm, by the sudden breaking out of one of the most terrific conflagrations that has been witnessed for many years past. Those in the immediate vicinity of the scene of this calamity, were quickly convinced of the truth of the cry, that the Houses of Lords and Commons, and the adjacent buildings, were on fire; the ill news spread rapidly through the town, and the flames increasing, and mounting higher and higher with fearful rapidity, attracted the attention of the vast majority of the inhabitants of the metropolis. Within less than half an hour after the fire broke out, it became impossible to approach nearer to the scene of disaster, than the foot of Westminster Bridge, on the Surrey side of the

river, or the end of Parliament-street on the other, except by means of a boat. The spectacle was one of surpassing though terrific splendour; and the stately appearance of the Abbey, whose architectural beauties were never seen to greater advantage than when lighted by the flames of this unfortunate fire, would itself have attracted as many thousands to the spot. But, extensive as the mischief we have to deplore really was, rumour had magnified it most fearfully. It was currently reported through the town, that Westminster Hall, and even the Abbey itself, were in flames.

“How and where the fire originated are still matters of doubt. The general belief, however, appears to be, that it broke out in some part of the buildings attached to the House of Lords, from whence it spread to the House itself with such vast celerity, that before eight o’clock, the whole range of structure, from the portico, by which the Peers enter, to the corner where it communicates with the committee-rooms of the House of Commons, was in flames.

“As rapidly did the devouring element extend its ravages to the ancient chapel of St. Stephen, where the work of destruction was sooner over than in the other house of parliament. The greater quantity of timber which the fabric of the House of Commons contained, will readily account for this; and it is further to be observed, that from the situation of the building, and the unlucky circumstance of the tide being unusually low, a very scanty supply of water, and the application of only one or two engines, were all that the most strenuous exertions could bring to bear in the vain attempt to save that interesting edifice from absolute destruction.

"The conflagration, viewed from the river, was peculiarly grand and impressive. On the first view of it from the water, it appeared as if nothing could save Westminster Hall from the fury of the flames. There was an immense pillar of bright clear fire springing up behind it, and a cloud of white, yet dazzling smoke, careering above it, through which, as it was parted by the wind, you could occasionally perceive the lantern and pinnacles by which the building is ornamented. At the same time a shower of fiery particles appeared to be falling upon it with such unceasing rapidity, as to render it miraculous that the roof did not burst out into one general blaze. Till you passed through Westminster Bridge, you could not catch a glimpse of the fire in detail—you had only before you the certainty that the fire was of greater magnitude than usual, but of its mischievous shape and its real extent, you could form no conception. Westminster Bridge, covered as it was with individuals standing on its balustrades, was a curious spectacle, as the dark masses of individuals formed a striking contrast with the clean white stone of which it was built, and which stood out well and boldly in the clear moonlight. As you approached the bridge you caught a sight through its arches of a motley multitude assembled on the strand below the Speaker's garden, and gazing with intense eagerness on the progress of the flames.—Above them were seen the dark caps of the Fusileer Guards, who were stationed in the garden itself to prevent the approach of unwelcome intruders. Advancing still nearer, every branch and fibre of the trees which are in front of the House of Commons became clearly defined in the overpowering brilliance of the conflagration.

gration. As soon as you shot through the bridge, the whole of this melancholy spectacle stood before you. From the new pile of buildings, in which are the Parliament offices, down to the end of the Speaker's house, the flames were shooting fast and furious through every window. The roof of Mr. Ley's house, of the House of Commons, and of the Speaker's house, had already fallen in, and, as far as they were concerned, it was quite evident that the conflagration had done its worst. The tower between these buildings and the Jerusalem Chamber, was in flames on every floor. The roof had partially fallen in, but had not yet broken clean through the floors. The rafters, however, were all blazing, and from the volume of flame which they vomited forth through the broken casements, great fears were entertained for the safety of the other tenements in Cotton-garden. The fire, crackling and rustling with prodigious noise as it went along, soon devoured all the interior of this tower, which contained, we believe the library of the House of Commons. By eleven o'clock it was reduced to a mere shell, illuminated, however, from its base to its summit in the most bright and glowing tints of flame. The two oriel windows, which fronted the river, appeared to have their frame-works fringed with innumerable sparkles of lighted gas; and, as those frame-works yielded before the violence of the fire, seemed to open a clear passage right through the edifice for the destructive element. Above the upper window was a strong beam of wood burning fiercely from end to end. It was evidently the main support of the upper part of the building, and as the beam was certain to be reduced in a short time to ashes, apprehensions were entertained of the speedy fall of the whole edifice. At this time the

voices of the firemen were distinctly heard preaching caution, and their shapes were indistinctly seen in the lurid light flitting about in the most dangerous situations. Simultaneously were heard in other parts of the frontage to the river, the smashing of windows, the battering down of wooden partitions, and the heavy clatter of falling bricks, all evidently displaced for the purpose of stopping the advance of the flames. The engines ceased to play on the premises whose destruction was inevitable, and poured their discharges upon the neighbouring houses, which were yet unscathed. A little after twelve o'clock, the library tower fell inwards with a dreadful crash, and shortly afterwards the flame, as if it had received fresh aliment, darted up in one startling blaze, which was almost immediately quenched in a dense column of the blackest smoke. As soon as this smoke cleared away, the destructive ravages of the fire became more evident. Through a vista of flaming wall, you beheld the Abbey frowning in melancholy pride over its defaced and shattered neighbours. As far as you could judge from the river, the work of ruin was accomplished but too effectually in the Parliamentary buildings which skirt its shores.

“The appearance of the fire from the corner of Abingdon-street was also exceedingly striking. For a length of time the exertions of the firemen appeared to be principally directed to save that part of the House of Lords which consisted of the tower that rose above the portico. All the rest of the line of building was enveloped in flames, which had extended themselves along the whole (except the wing) of that part of the adjacent building to the left, that fronts Abingdon-street, and the upper stories of which

were committee-rooms, while at the basement were the stone steps leading to the House of Commons. The wing of this building, however, which rose high above the rest, the upper part being a portion of Bellamy's, and the lower being used as a receptacle of the great coats, &c. of members of the House of Commons, was for some time, like the tower above the portico at the entrance to the House of Lords, but slightly injured by the flames, and these two objects seemed to bound the ravages of the fire, and to offer successful resistance to its further progress, while all between them was in one uninterrupted blaze, attracting universal attention. The flames did not, in fact, extend beyond these two points, but seemed to exhaust themselves in the destruction of them. They took fire nearly at the same moment, and burning furiously for nearly half an hour, the whole structure, from the entrance of the House of Commons to the entrance of the House of Lords, presented one bright sheet of flame. At length the roofs and ceilings gave way, and when the smoke and sparks that followed the crash of the heavy burning mass that fell, had cleared away, nothing met the eye but an unsightly ruin, tinted with the dark red glarere flected from the smouldering embers at its feet.

"At half past two o'clock the fire, continued to burn furiously among the ruins which it had made, but its power to do farther mischief appeared to have ceased. Fresh engines and fresh supplies of men were, however, coming to the scene of devastation, and a continual volley of water was showered upon the ruins. More vigorous exertion and more active zeal, we never witnessed; but it must be confessed that our ordinary engines are totally incapable

of contending with such a conflagration as that of last night, and that our fire-engine system wants the great element of efficiency—a general superintendent. Each fire office acts according to its own view; there is no obedience to one chief, and consequently where the completest co-operation is necessary, all is confusion or contradiction. Up to the last we observed no disturbance; and indeed before three o'clock there was scarcely a person to be seen except the soldiers and firemen. The myriads who had for hours peopled the streets, had all quietly dispersed; and the only sound heard was the crackling of timbers, or the heaving of the fire-pumps.”

“The House of Lords was originally the old Court of Requests, in which the masters of the court received the petitions of the subjects to the king. The court or hall, was fitted up in its recent manner on the occasion of the Union of Great Britain and Ireland.

“The House of Commons was originally a chapel built by King Stephen, and dedicated to St. Stephen; hence the name of St. Stephen’s Chapel, so frequently applied to this building. It was rebuilt in 1347, by Edward III., and created by that monarch into a collegiate church, under the government of a dean and twelve secular priests. Being surrendered to Edward VI., he gave it to the Commons for their sittings, and it has been applied to that use ever since.”

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